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OUTLINES

OF

ENGLISH GRAMMAR

FOR

THE USE OF JUNIOR CLASSES.

BY

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the Scandinavian invaders, such as *by* ('town,' as in Grimsby); *Scaw* ('wood,' as in Scawfell); *force* ('waterfall,' as Stockgill Force); *holm* ('island,' as in Langholm); *ness* ('headland,' as in Furness); *ey* ('island,' as in Orkney); *beck* ('brook,' as in Troutbeck), &c. The influx of the Scandinavian element produced on the northern dialects the same sort of effect that the Norman-French element did on the southern dialects; it led to the weakening and disuse of the inflexions in the northern dialects long before the like change was brought about in the southern dialects.

3. Words of Latin origin, and Greek Words introduced through Latin.—Of these we have now immense numbers in English. These words came in at various periods, and under various circumstances.

a. A few Latin words, connected with names of places, were adopted by the Britons from the Romans, and by the Angles and Saxons from the Britons, and appear, for example, in Chester (*castra*), Gloucester, Stratford (*strata*), Lincoln (*colonia*), Fossbury (*fossa*).

b. A good many words of classical origin were introduced between the settlement of the Saxons and the Norman Conquest by the ecclesiastics who brought Christianity into England. These words are mostly ecclesiastical terms, and names of social institutions and natural objects previously unknown to the English. These words came direct from Latin, or from Greek through Latin.

c. A much larger number of words of Latin origin came to us through Norman-French, the acquired language of the Norman conquerors of England. After the Conquest this was of course the language of the Norman nobles and their retainers throughout England. To a more limited extent it had been introduced as the language of the court of Edward the Confessor. Most of the words in our language which relate to feudal institutions, to war, law, and the chase, were introduced in this way. English, however, never ceased to be the language of the mass of the native population, though an important change in it was at least accelerated, if not first commenced, by the influence of the Norman-French, which was established side by side with it. The numerous grammatical inflexions of the older English began to be disused, and in the course of the three centuries that followed the Conquest were reduced to little more than their present number.

d. The revival of the study of the classical languages in the sixteenth century led to the introduction of an immense number of Latin and Greek words, which were taken direct from the original languages. Many of these importations have since been discarded. It often happens that the same classical word has given rise to two words in English, one coming to us through Norman-French, the other taken direct from Latin. In such cases, the former is the shorter and more corrupted form. Compare, for example, *hotel* and *hospital*, *reason* and *rational*, *poison* and *potion*.

4. Words of Miscellaneous origin.—The extensive intercourse maintained during the last three hundred years with all parts of the world naturally led to the introduction of words from most languages of importance, relating to natural productions, works of art, or social institutions, with which this intercourse first made us acquainted.

Thus it has come about that the two chief constituents of **modern English** are **Anglo-Saxon** and **Latin**, mixed with a small proportion of words of miscellaneous origin.

As a general rule (admitting, of course, of numerous exceptions) it will be found that words relating to common natural objects, to home life, to agriculture, and to common trades and processes, are usually of Teutonic origin. Words relating to the higher functions of social life—religion, law, government, and war, to the less obvious processes of the mind, and to matters connected with art, science, and philosophy, are commonly of classical and mostly of Latin origin. Most words of three or more syllables, and a large number of those of two, are of classical origin. The Teutonic element prevails (though very far from exclusively) in words of one or two syllables, and is by far the most forcible and expressive. Hence it predominates in all our finest poetry. It is impossible to write a single sentence without Teutonic elements, but sentence after sentence may be found in Shakspeare and the English Bible, which is pure English, in the strictest sense of that term.

One great advantage which English has derived from the mingling of the Teutonic and Romance elements is the great richness of its vocabulary, and its power of expressing delicate shades of difference in the signification of words by the use of pairs of words, of which one is Teutonic and the other French.*

The changes by which Anglo-Saxon (or the oldest English) became modern English were gradual, and no exact date can be given for the introduction of this or that particular alteration. Still the process was influenced or accelerated at certain points by political events. The Norman Conquest, and the political relations between the conquering and the conquered race, naturally made Norman-French the language of the court and the nobles, of the courts of justice, of the episcopal sees, and of garrisoned places. But the loss of Normandy in 1206, the enactments of Henry III. and Louis IX., that the subjects of the one crown should not hold lands in the territory of the other, and the political movements under John and Henry III., stopped the further influx of the Norman element. At the same time the absolutist tendencies of the kings drove the nobles into closer union with the Anglo-Saxon elements of the nation; and the French wars of Edward III. roused an anti-French feeling among all classes, which extended itself even to the language, insomuch that we learn from Chaucer that in his time French was spoken in England but rarely, and in a corrupted form. In 1362 appeared the edict of Edward III. that legal proceedings in the royal courts should be conducted in English.

* Compare, for example, *feeling* and *sentiment*, *work* and *labour*, *bloom* and *flower*. The number of pairs of exactly synonymous words is small.

OUTLINES OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

INTRODUCTION.

1. Speech or language is the expression of thought by means of words.

2. Words are significant combinations of elementary sounds. These sounds are represented to the eye by marks or symbols called **letters,** the whole collection of which is called the **Alphabet** (from *alpha, beta,* the names of the first two letters of the Greek Alphabet). The right mode of uttering the sounds that make up a word is called **Orthoëpy** (from the Greek *orthos,* 'right,' and *epos,* 'spoken word'). The right mode of representing the sounds that make up a word by means of letters is called **Orthography** (from the Greek *orthos,* 'right,' and *grapho,* 'I write').

3. A sentence (Latin *sententia,* 'thought') is a collection of words of such kinds and arranged in such a manner as to express some complete thought. The words of which sentences are made up are of different sorts, according to the kind of purpose which they serve in a sentence.

> Thus, in the sentence "The little bird flies swiftly through the air," **bird** is the name of something that we speak about; **the** points out which bird is meant; **little** describes the bird; **flies** tells us something about the bird, by stating what it does; **swiftly** denotes the manner in which the bird does this; **through** shows what the action of the bird has to do with the air.

The different sorts or classes in which words may be arranged are called **Parts of Speech.**

THE ALPHABET.

4. The alphabet of the English language consists of twenty-six letters, each of which is written in two forms, differing in shape and size; the large letters being called Capitals, or Capital Letters.* These letters are the following:—

A, a: B, b: C, c: D, d: E, e: F, f: G, g: H, h: I, i: J, j: K, k: L, l: M, m: N, n: O, o: P, p: Q, q: R, r: S, s: T, t: U, u: V, v: W, w: X, x: Y, y: Z, z.

5. The letters **a, e, i, o, u,** are called **Vowels** (from Latin *vocalis*, 'that can be sounded'). They can be fully sounded by themselves, and with a continuous passage of the breath. The remaining letters are called **Consonants** (Latin *con*, 'together,' *sonans*, 'sounding'). They cannot be sounded with a continuous breath, but either stop or set free the passage of the breath by which the vowels are sounded. They therefore have a vowel either before or after them.

6. There are thirteen simple vowel sounds in English; the sounds of *a* in *tall*, *father*, *fate*, *fat*; the sounds of *e* in *met* and *mete*; the sound of *i* in *pin*; the sounds of *o* in *note* and *not*; the sounds of *u* in *rule*, *pull*, *fur*, and *but*.

These vowel sounds are represented by letters in English in a great variety of ways. Compare the following words in sound and spelling:—

Fate, braid, say, great, neigh, prey, gaol, gauge.
Fall, for, fraud, claw, broad, ought.
Far, clerk, aunt, heart.
Mete, meet, meat, people, chief, receive.†
Pet, many, said, bury, tread, friend.
Herd, bird, curs, earth.
Pit, pretty, sieve, busy.
Bite, thy, eye, height, dies, buy, aisle.

* Capital letters are used at the beginning of proper names, for the nominative case singular of the personal pronoun of the first person, and for any noun, adjective, or pronoun, used in speaking of the Divine Being. They may also be used at the beginning of a common noun, when it is used in a special or technical sense, as *Mood*, *Voice*, *Person*, and at the beginning of a noun, or an adjective and a noun, denoting something specially important. Adjectives derived from proper nouns are also written with capitals. We also write His Majesty, Her Majesty, &c. The first word of a sentence must begin with a capital, and the first word of a line of poetry.

† It is convenient to bear in mind that with the exception of the words *seize* and *ceiling*, *ei* with the sound of *ee* is found only in words derived from the Latin *capio*, as *deceit* (decipio), *receipt* (recipio), *conceit* (concipio), &c.

Poke, coat, toe, soul, tow, sew, owe, door.
Pot, what.
Rude, rood, flew, blue, fruit, through, shoe.
Full, good.
Fun, love, does, flood, rough.

7. When two vowel sounds are uttered without a break between them, we get what is called a vocal or sonant **diphthong** (from Greek *di* or *dis*, 'twofold' or 'twice,' and *phthonge*, 'sound'). There are four of them.

1. **i**, as in *bite*. (See above.) This sound is made up of the *a* in father, and the *e* in *mete*.

2. **oi**, as in *hoist*. This diphthong is also written *oy* (*boy*), and *uoy* (*buoy*). It is made up of the sound of *a* in *fall*, and *e* in *mete*.

3. **eu** (as in *eulogy*). This diphthong is also expressed in writing by *u* (*mute*), *ew* or *ewe* (*few*, *ewe*), *eau* (*beauty*), *ui* (*suit*), *ue* (*hue*), *yu* (*yule*).

4. **ou** (as in *noun*). This is also expressed in writing by *ow* (*now*).

8. When two of the letters called vowels are written together to represent a simple vowel sound, we get what is called an **improper diphthong.**

9. The letters **w** and **y** are commonly called **semi-vowels.** When they are followed by a vowel sound in the same syllable, their sound approaches that of a consonant, as in *win*, *twin*, *you*, *yonder*. When a vowel precedes them in the same syllable they combine with it to form either a diphthong or a simple vowel sound; as *awe*, *how*, *aray*, *bey*, *buy*. **Y** is a pure vowel whenever it is followed by a consonant (as in Yttria).

10. The letters **l**, **m**, **n**, and **r**, are called **Liquids.** ȝ (or soft *g*), *s*, *x*, *z*, and soft *ch*, are called Sibilants (Latin *sibilare*, 'to hiss'). The liquids and sibilants do not stop the breath abruptly, but admit of a prolongation of the sound. Consonants which admit of a prolongation of the passage of the breath (**th**, **v**, **f**, **j**, **s**, **z**) are also called **spirants** or *breathing letters* (Latin *spirare*, 'to breathe').

11. The other consonants are called **Mutes.*** (Latin *mutus*, 'dumb').

The consonants **b**, **p**, **f**, and **v**, are called **labials**, or lip-letters (Latin *labium*, 'a lip').

The consonants **d**, **t**, **th**, are called **dentals**, or tooth-letters (Latin *dens*, 'tooth').

The consonants **g**, **k**, hard **c** and **ch** (as in *loch*), are called **gutturals**, or throat-letters (Latin *guttur*, 'throat').

---

* The *Mutes* must not be confounded with *mute letters*, *i.e.*, letters which are written but not sounded, like *k* in *knot*, or *e* in *awe*

12. **H** forms a class by itself. It is a simple impulse of the breath, and is called an **Aspirate** (Latin *ad*, 'at,' *spirare*, 'to breathe'). It was formerly a guttural letter.

13. The mutes are also classified in the following manner:—

Sharp (or **thin**) mutes—**p**, **t**, **k**.
Flat (or **middle**) mutes—**b**, **d**, **g**.
Aspirated mutes { **sharp**—**f**, **th** (in *thin*), hard **ch**. / **flat**—**v**, **th** (in *this*), **gh**.

In like manner **s** is a **sharp** sibilant, and **z** a **flat** sibilant. Compare also **x** in *Exeter* and *exist*.

14. Some consonants are sounded in more ways than one.

C is hard (= **k**) before **a**, **o**, and **u** (*can*, *cob*, *cut*); but soft (= **s**) before **e**, **i**, and **y** (*cell*, *city*, *Cyprus*).
CH is hard (= **k**) in *ache*, *mechanics*, but generally soft (= **tch**), as in *much*, *child*, &c. Like **sh** in a few words taken from French, as *machine*.
The soft sound of *ch* is due to the influence of Norman-French.
G is hard before **a**, **o**, and **u** (*gave*, *go*, *gun*), soft before **e** (*gem*), and before **i** and **y** in words not of Teutonic origin (*gin*, *gypsy*); but hard in *gill* (of a fish), *give*, *gilt*, &c.
The hard sound of g is often maintained by putting u after it, as *guile*, *guild*, *guest*.

15. A **syllable** (Greek *syllabe*, 'a taking together') is a single vowel, or a collection of letters pronounced together and containing only one vowel sound.

A word which consists of a single syllable is called a **Monosyllable** (Greek *monos*, 'single'), such as *man*, *horse*, *hut*.

A word which consists of two syllables is called a **Disyllable**, as *folly*, *learning*.

A word that consists of three syllables is called a **Trisyllable**, as *vanity*, *loveliness*.

A word that consists of more than three syllables is called a **Polysyllable** (Greek *polys*, 'many'), as *singularity*.

16. When a syllable beginning with a vowel is added to a monosyllable, or a word accented on the last syllable, ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, the final consonant is doubled. As *sin*, *sinner*; *sit*, *sitting*; *expel*, *expelled*; *confer*, *conferred*. But if the accent does not fall on the last syllable, the final consonant is not doubled; as *offer*, *offered*; *differ*, *different*; *visit*, *visiting*. The letters *l* and *s*, however, are generally doubled, as *travel*, *traveller*; *hocus*, *hocussing*. There are also some other words in which the rule is violated, as *worshipper*.

When a syllable (not beginning with *i*) is added to a word ending in *y* preceded by a consonant, the *y* is changed into *i*, as *happy, happily, happier; pity, pitiless.* When the final *y* is preceded by a vowel, it is not changed. Conversely when *ing* is added to a word ending in *ie*, the *i* is changed into *y*; as *die, dying; lie, lying.* In monosyllables *y* is not changed before a consonant, as *dryness, shyly.*

17. **Mute e** after a single consonant is employed to show that the preceding vowel is long: compare *shin* and *shine, ban* and *bane.* It is generally omitted when a syllable that begins with a vowel is added; as *force, forcible; love, loving;* but is retained if it is required to preserve the pronunciation of the consonant, as *change, changeable.* It is always put after final *v.*

18. The English orthographical system has many imperfections.

The same vowel sound is often represented in different ways, as in the modes indicated above for expressing the simple vowel sounds and diphthongs.

The same letter or diphthong often represents very different vowel sounds. Compare *cat, pate, call, father; read, spread; broad, coach; goes, does, shoes, foetid; cull, full, yule.*

Some consonants have not always the same sound. Compare *give, gin, gill* (a measure), *gill* (of a fish); *cent, can; dough, cough; arch, archangel; his, this; thin, thine.*

The same sound is sometimes represented by different consonants. Compare *adds, adze; crutch, such; face, base; jury, gaol; know, no; plum, plumb; knowledge, privilege; fillip, Philip; picked Pict.*

Simple sounds are sometimes expressed by two letters, as by *ck* in *duck; ch* in *loch;* and most of the written digraphs.

Complex sounds are sometimes expressed by single letters, as by *i* and *u* in *mine* and *muse; s* in *sure; j* in *just.*

Hard *c, q, x,* and, perhaps, *w* and *y,* are **superfluous letters;** their sounds may be represented by other letters.

If we include *w* and *y* as separate sounds, and the nasal *ng,* we shall have **forty-one elementary sounds in English.** *Wh* is pronounced like *hw,* and is not a separate sound. Consonants are often not pronounced, as in *through, plough, knell, know.*

ETYMOLOGY.

19. Etymology is that division of grammar which deals with separate words.

CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS.

20. The classes in which words are arranged (see § 3) are called Parts of Speech. These are eight in number:—

1. **Noun.**
2. **Adjective.**
3. **Pronoun.**
4. **Verb.**
5. **Adverb.**
6. **Preposition.**
7. **Conjunction.**
8. **Interjection.**

21. A **Noun** (Latin *nomen*, 'name') is a word used as a name for something, as 'bird,' 'James.'

An **Adjective** (Latin *adjectivus*, 'that may be joined to') is a word used with a noun to describe, to limit as to quantity or number, or to indicate that for which the noun stands, as '*Tall* men'; '*Three* birds'; '*This* book.'

A **Pronoun** (Latin *pro*, 'for,' *nomen*, 'name') is a word used instead of a noun, as '*I* see'; '*He* runs'; '*Who* spoke.'

A **Verb** (Latin *verbum*, 'word') is a word which tells something about some person or thing, as 'Lions *roar*.'

An **Adverb** (Latin *ad*, 'to,' *verbum*, 'word') is a word which shows how an action, state, or quality is modified or limited, as 'He writes *well*'; 'John came *yesterday*'; 'I am *very* tired.'

A **Preposition** (Latin *prae*, 'before,' *positus*, 'placed') is a word which, when placed before a noun or pronoun, shows some relation in which some thing, or some action or attribute of a thing, stands to something else, as 'A cloud *in* the sky'; 'Come *to* me'; 'Fond *of* play.'

A **Conjunction** (Latin *con*, 'together,' *jungo*, 'join') is a word which joins together words which have a common relation to some other word, or sentences which have a mutual relation to each other, as, 'We eat bread *and* meat,' 'He heard the noise, *but* sat still,' '*Though* he is rich, he is humble.'

An **Interjection** (Latin *inter*, 'between,' *jactus*, 'thrown') is a word which expresses some feeling or emotion, but has no grammatical relation to other words, as 'Oh!' 'Alas!'

INFLEXION.

22. Inflexion (Latin *inflectere*, 'to bend') is a change made in the form of a word either to mark some modification of the notion which the word stands for, or to show the relation of the word to some other word in the sentence.

Nouns and **Pronouns** are inflected to mark **Gender, Number,** and **Case.** This inflexion is called **Declension.**

Adjectives and **Adverbs** are inflected to mark **degree.** This inflexion is called **Comparison.**

Verbs are inflected to mark **Voice, Mood, Tense, Number,** and **Person.** This inflexion is called **Conjugation.**

Prepositions, Conjunctions, and **Interjections,** are not inflected.

The **Stem** (or **Crude Form**) of a word that admits of inflexion is that portion of the word upon which the inflexions are based.

That portion of a word which it has in common with other words that relate to the same notion, is called the **Root.**

NOUN.

23. The word **Noun** means **name** (Latin, *nomen*). **A noun is** a word used as a name for something.

CLASSIFICATION OF NOUNS.

24. Nouns are divided into two principal classes :—

1. Common Nouns. 2. Proper Nouns.

I.—COMMON NOUNS.

25. A **common noun** (Latin, *communis*, 'shared by several') is a word that is the name of each thing out of a class of things of the same kind, as *horse, stone, city,* or of any portion of a quantity of stuff of the same sort, as *wheat, iron, water.*

A common noun distinguishes what belongs to some class or sort from everything which does not belong to it. Thus the name *horse* distinguishes that animal from all other sorts of things, but does not distinguish one horse from another.

26. Common Nouns are subdivided into—

1. Ordinary Class Names.

2. Collective Nouns.

3. Abstract Nouns.

An **Ordinary Class Name** is one that belongs to each individual of a class, or to each portion of some sort of material, as *horse*, *tree*, *water*, *marble*. Names of materials are used in the plural when different sorts of the material are spoken of, as 'teas,' 'sugars,' &c.

A **Collective Noun** is a noun which in the singular number stands for one collection of several individual things, as *herd*, *parliament*, *multitude*. In the plural it stands for several such *collections*.

An **Abstract Noun** is the name of a quality, action, or state, as *hardness*, *running*, *growth*, *sleep*. As **Arts** and **Sciences** are in fact *processes of thought and action*, their names are **Abstract Nouns**, as *astronomy*, *logic*, *grammar*.

27. Abstract nouns are derived from adjectives (as *hardness* from *hard*), from verbs (as *growth* from *grow*), or from nouns that denote a function or state (as *priesthood* from *priest*, *widowhood* from *widow*). The infinitive mood is often used as an abstract noun.

Abstract nouns are sometimes used in the *concrete* sense, that is, standing for that which possesses the quality which they denote. Thus *nobility* frequently means the whole body of persons of noble birth; *youth*, the whole class of young people, and so on.

28. Common nouns are *significant*. They not only *denote*, or mark out, the objects to which they are applied, but also *connote*, or *note at the same time*, the whole combination of marks or attributes, through their possession of which the various individuals named by the common noun are grouped into one class.

II.—PROPER NOUNS.

29. A **Proper Noun** is a word used as the name of some particular person, animal, place, or thing, as *John*, *London*, *Bucephalus*, *Excalibur*. The word *proper* (Latin *proprius*) means *own*. A *proper name* is a person's or thing's **own name**.

Proper nouns are written with a capital letter at the beginning.

30. Proper nouns, *as such*, are not significant. Even if the name, considered merely as a word, has a meaning, it is not applied to the object which it denotes in consequence of that meaning. *Margaret* means *pearl*, but it is not implied that a person called *Margaret* has *pearly* qualities. Many proper names, however, such as Snowdon, Blackwater, Newcastle, were at first *descriptive*.

31. Proper nouns are sometimes used like common nouns, when they denote classes or collections of persons grouped together because they

resemble each other in certain attributes that marked some individual, as if we say of a poet, 'He was the Homer of his age,' or of a strong man, that he is 'a Hercules,' or speak of 'the Howards,' meaning philanthropists like Howard.

INFLEXIONS OF NOUNS.

32. Nouns are inflected to mark **Gender, Number,** and **Case**; though these distinctions are not always marked by inflexion

GENDER.

33. **Living beings** are divided into two classes or *sexes*, the **male sex** and the **female sex,** the individuals in the one sex corresponding to those in the other. Things without life are not of either sex. Thus all things are arranged in three classes—**things of the male sex, things of the female sex,** and **things of neither sex.**

34. In like manner, nouns are divided into three classes or sorts called **Genders,** which correspond to the three classes of things just mentioned. These are the **Masculine Gender,** the **Feminine Gender,** and the **Neuter Gender.** *Gender* comes from the Latin *genus*, 'a kind or sort.'

The name of anything of the **male sex** is called a **masculine noun,** or a noun of the **masculine gender** (Latin *masculinus*, 'belonging to a male').

The name of anything of the **female sex** is called a **feminine noun** or a noun of the **feminine gender** (Latin *femininus*, 'belonging to a female').

The name of anything of **neither sex** is called a **neuter noun,** or a noun of the **neuter gender*** (Latin *neuter*, 'neither').

Man, king, father, horse, cock, bull, James, Henry, are masculine nouns.

Woman, queen, mother, mare, hen, cow, Mary, Jane, are feminine nouns.

Stone, tree, house, London, are neuter nouns.

In the case of animals and young children we often take no account of the sex, and hence they are frequently referred to by means of *neuter pronouns.*†

* It is only in English, however, that this simple classification is observed.

† But in poetry, fables, or lively narratives, animals are treated as male or female, even when the name is of common gender, with a general tendency to consider the larger and fiercer animals as male, and the gentler and more timid as female.

35. The names of animals sometimes do not indicate their sex, as *sheep, bird, hawk, bear, mouse, raven, swan, dove.* Also various names of persons, as *parent, spouse, servant,* &c. Such nouns are said to be of common or undetermined gender.* Some masculine nouns (*horse, dog*), and some feminine (*duck, goose*), are often used to denote either sex.

36. Things without life are often *personified,* or spoken of as if they were living beings, and therefore either of the male or of the female sex.

MODES OF DENOTING GENDER.

37. The distinction of sex in living beings is marked in three ways—

First Mode.—Quite different words are used,† as:—

Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*
Father	mother	Drake	duck
Brother	sister	Cock	hen
Husband	wife	Ram	ewe
Uncle	aunt, &c.	Bull	cow, &c.

Man (like the German *Mensch*) was formerly used of the female as well as of the male. We see this in the compound *woman*, a modified form of *wimman—i.e., wifman.*

Father means 'one who feeds;' from the same root as *fee-d* and *fa-t* (compare *pa-ter* and *pa-sco*). *Mother* is from a root *ma*—'bring forth.' *Daughter* (Gr. θυγάτηρ) meant originally 'milkmaid.' The root is the same as in *dug.*

Husband (A.S. *hûsbonda*) is the manager or *master of the house. Bonda* in A.S. means *tiller* or *manager.*

38. Second Mode—Inflexion.—Gender is indicated by the termination of the word.

A. Different suffixes are used for the masculine and the feminine.

Masculine.	*Feminine.*
Murderer	murderess
Caterer	cateress
Governor	governess
Emperor	empress
Sorcerer	sorceress

* But if there is anything to show the sex of the person denoted by the noun, the noun is treated as being masculine or feminine accordingly, and a masculine or feminine pronoun is used to replace it. Such a plural as *parents* is of necessity *common.* A singular noun so used that the context does not show the sex of the person spoken of, is treated as *masculine.*

† Strictly speaking, this is not *grammatical* gender

The termination **-er** (in Anglo-Saxon **-ere**) is a true English suffix. The corresponding feminine suffix was **-ster** (A.S. **-estre**) as *m. bæcere, f. bæcestre (baker); m. hoppere (dancer), f. hoppestre.* **Spinster** is the only word which preserves the feminine force of the suffix.

In Anglo-Saxon **-a** was a masculine suffix and **-e** a feminine suffix, as **nefa, nefe** (nephew, niece).

B. The feminine is formed from the masculine by adding feminine suffixes.

1. The commonest of these, and the only one by which fresh feminines can be formed is **-ess**, as *count, countess; mayor, mayoress.*

When this suffix is added to the masculine terminations *or* and *er*, the vowel *o* is usually omitted, as in *actor, actress; hunter, huntress.*

Abbess (from *abbot*) is a shortened form of *abbadess.* *Lass* is probably shortened from *laddess.*

2. One word, *vixen*, the feminine of *fox*, preserves the old Teutonic feminine suffix, *en* or *in* (compare German *inn*), the root vowel of the masculine being modified. (Compare German *Fuchs, Füchsinn.*)

39. Third Mode. Masculine and feminine nouns or pronouns are prefixed or affixed to nouns of common gender.

Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*
Man-servant	maid-servant	Cock-sparrow	hen-sparrow
He-devil	she-devil	Dog-fox	bitch-fox
Buck-rabbit	doe-rabbit	He-goat	she-goat
Bull-calf	cow-calf	Pea-cock	pea-hen

Sometimes proper names are used to answer this purpose, as in *jack-ass, jenny-ass; tom-cat, tib-cat; billy-goat, nanny-goat; jackdaw.*

NUMBER.

40. Number is a difference in form which shows whether we are speaking of one thing or of more than one.

41. There are now* two numbers in English, the **Singular** and the **Plural.** The **Singular Number** of a noun is that form of it which is used when we speak of **one** of the things for which the noun stands, as *ship, horse, herd.*

The **Plural Number** of a noun is that form of it which is used when we speak of **more than one** of that for which the noun stands, as *ships, horses, herds.*

* Formerly our language had a *dual* number, in the personal pronoun used in speaking of *two* persons.

MODES OF FORMING THE PLURAL.

42. The plural is formed from the singular in the following modes:—

First Mode.—By adding the syllable **es** shortened to **s** whenever the pronunciation admits of it. The full syllable *es* is now added only when the singular ends in a sibilant (*s*, *sh*, soft *ch*, *x* or *z*), as *gas, gases; lash, lashes; witch, witches; box, boxes; topaz, topazes.*

The letters **es** are also added (but without being sounded as a separate syllable) after several* words ending in **o**, as *hero, heroes; potato, potatoes;* in the word *alkalies;* after **y** when it is preceded by a consonant, the **y** being changed to **i**, as *lady. ladies;* and after words of Anglo-Saxon origin ending in **lf** or **f** preceded by any long vowel sound except **oo**. In these cases the flat sound which *s* always has in *es* affects the preceding consonant, and **f** is changed to **v**, as *elf, elves; shelf, shelves; leaf, leaves; thief, thieves; loaf, loaves. Wife* and *knife* get *f* changed to *v* in a similar way—*wives, knives.*

43. All nouns except those above mentioned, and the few nouns which form their plurals in the second and third modes hereafter specified, have their plurals formed by the addition of **s** only, as *book, books; father, fathers.*

When **y** at the end of a word is preceded by a vowel, **s** only is added to form the plural, and the **y** is not changed, as *valley, valleys; boy, boys. Qu* counts as a consonant.

44. Second Mode.—By adding **en**, as *ox, oxen; brother, brethren; child, children.* This mode was once more common.

45. Third Mode.—By **changing** the **vowel sound** of the word, as *tooth, teeth; mouse, mice; foot, feet; goose, geese; man, men.*

46. Fourth Mode.—By leaving the singular unchanged, as *sheep; deer; grouse; swine; fish; fowl,* &c. (in a collective sense), *cannon; salmon; perch,* &c.

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* The usage in the case of words ending in *o* is arbitrary, and by no means uniform, *es* being commonly added. But *s* only is added to words ending in *io* and *oo*, and to the following words:—*domino, virtuoso, tyro, quarto, octavo, duodecimo, mosquito, canto, grotto, solo, rondo.*

47. Names of Materials (as *sugar*, *wine*, &c.) and **Abstract Nouns** may have plurals to denote varieties or different instances of what is named, as '*sugars*,' '*wines*,' '*negligences*.'

48. Plurals of Foreign Words.—Latin, Greek, French, Italian, and Hebrew words generally retain their own proper plurals. Thus (1) in Latin words

Nouns in	us	(masculine)	form the plural in	i, as focus, foci.
„	us	(neuter)	„ „	era, as genus, genera.
„	um	„	„ „	a, as datum, data.
„	a	„	„ „	æ, as formula, formulæ.
„	ix or ex	„	„ „	ices, as radix, radices.
„	ies	„	„ „	ies, as series, series.

(2.) In Greek words

Nouns in	on		form the plural in	a, as phenomenon, phenomena.
„	sis		„ „	ses, as crisis, crises.
„	ma		„ „	mata, as miasma, miasmata.

49. Double Plurals.—Some nouns have double plurals, which differ in meaning, as :—

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Plural.*
Brother	brothers (*by birth*)	brethren (*of a community*)
Cloth.....	cloths (*kinds of cloth*)	clothes (*garments*)
Die.....	dies (*for coining*)	dice (*for play*)
Fish	fishes (*regarded separately*)	fish (*collective*)
Genius ...	geniuses (*men of talent*) ...	genii (*spirits*)
Index ...	indexes (*tables of contents*)	indices (*in Algebra*)
Pea*	peas (*regarded separately*)	pease (*collective*)
Penny ...	pennies (*separate coins*) ...	pence (*sum of money*)
Shot	shots (*discharges*)	shot (*balls*)

50. Plurals used as singulars.—

1. Words in -ics from Greek adjectives, as *mathematics*.

2. Certain words, as *means*, *gallows*, *amends*, *wages*, *pains*, are usually preceded by a singular demonstrative (*this*, *that*) and by *much* or *little* (not *many*, or *few*), but are followed by a verb in the plural, as 'Pains were taken,' 'Wages have risen.' *News* is now† always singular. *Small-pox* (sing. *pock*) is properly a plural.

51. Nouns used only in the Plural.—Nouns representing

* The singular *pea* has perhaps been made out of the word *pease* taken in a collective sense, and mistaken for a plural.

† "These ill news" (Shakspeare, *Much Ado*, II. 1, 180).

things which are double or multiform are used only in the plural, as—

1. Instruments or articles of dress made double, as *scissors, tongs, breeches, drawers.*

2. Portions of the body, certain diseases, games, ceremonies, &c., usually regarded as *aggregates* of a number of parts, as *entrails, measles, billiards, nuptials, matins, ashes, stocks.*

CASE.

52. Definition.—Case is the form in which a noun (or pronoun) is used, in order to show the relation in which it stands to some other word in the sentence.

English in its Anglo-Saxon stage had five cases, at least in pronouns, the *Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative,* and *Instrumental.* We have now only three cases, the *Nominative Case,* the *Possessive Case,* and the *Objective Case.* In nouns the nominative and objective cases are alike in form.

NOMINATIVE CASE.

53. The **nominative case** is that form in which a noun (or pronoun) is used when it is the subject of a verb; that is, when it stands for that about which something is said by means of a verb, as '**Men** build houses,' '**The boy** was struck by his brother.' If the verb or the sentence be in the **active** voice, the **subject** of the verb stands for the **doer of the action** described by the verb. If the verb be in the **passive** voice, the **subject of the** verb stands for the **object of the action** described by the verb. In either case **the subject stands for that about which something is said by means of the verb.**

It answers the question made by putting *who?* or *what?* before the verb, as 'Who build houses?' 'Men.' 'Who was struck?' 'The boy.'

POSSESSIVE CASE.

54. The **possessive case** is that form of a noun (or pronoun) which shows that something belongs to the person or thing for which it stands. Thus in 'I saw John's book,' the possessive case *John's* shows that something (namely a book) *belongs to John*

55. The meaning of the possessive case may be expressed by means of the preposition *of* with the objective case after it. Thus, for 'My father's house,' we may say, 'The house of my father.'

56. The **possessive case** in the singular number, and in plurals not ending in *s*, is formed by adding *s* with an apostrophe before it (*'s*) to the nominative, as *Thomas's*, *men's*, *geese's*. When the plural itself ends in *s* in the nominative, *s* is not added to form the possessive, but the apostrophe is retained to indicate the case, as '*birds'* *feathers*.'

When a noun of two or more syllables ends in a sibilant in the singular, the possessive suffix *s* is sometimes dropped in prose (especially in words of more than two syllables) and is rarely added in poetry, but the apostrophe is retained as in plural nouns, as 'Moses' minister' (*Josh.* i. 1); 'Felix' room' (*Acts* xxiv. 27); 'Aeneas' son'. But this dropping of the *s* is optional, at least in prose.

57. The old Genitive or Possessive suffix in English was **-es** (still preserved in *Wednesday*, i.e. *Wodenes day*). It was used only in masculine and neuter nouns, and in the singular number. Its syllabic force is still heard after a sibilant, as in *Thomas's*. The apostrophe now placed before the *s* marks that the vowel of the suffix has been dropped.

OBJECTIVE CASE.

58. The **objective case** is that form in which a noun or pronoun is used when it **stands for the object of the action** spoken of in some verb in the active voice, or when it comes **after a preposition.** In the sentence, 'The stone struck the boy,' the word *boy*, which **stands for the object of the action,** is called the **object of the verb,** and is in the objective case. In the sentence, 'John was riding in a coach,' the noun *coach*, which comes after the preposition *in*, is in the objective case.

59. The objective case is often used, like the Latin dative, to denote the *indirect object* of a verb, that is to say, it stands for some person or thing indirectly affected by the action, but not the direct object of it; as 'Give *the man* a shilling,' 'Tell *me* a tale.' In old English the dative differed in form from the accusative.

60. When a noun in the objective case is the object of a verb, the noun in the objective case answers to the question formed by putting *whom* or *what* before the verb and its subject. As in the example given above, 'whom or what did the stone strike?' *Ans.* 'The boy.'

61. The following are examples of the declension of nouns in modern English:—

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Nominative Case	Man	Men.
Possessive Case	Man's	Men's.
Objective Case	Man	Men.
Nominative Case	Father	Fathers.
Possessive Case	Father's	Fathers'.
Objective Case	Father	Fathers.

ANCIENT ENGLISH DECLENSIONS.

62. The following examples of the older declensions of nouns will show how largely English has dropped its inflexions.

ANGLO-SAXON FORMS.

WEAK DECLENSION.

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	Masc.	*Fem.*	*Neut.*	(*All Genders.*)
Nom.	nam-a	tung-e	eag-e	-an
Gen.	nam-an	tung-an	eag-an	-ena
Dat. Abl.	nam-an	tung-an	eag-an	-um
Acc.	nam-an	tung-an	eag-an	-an

STRONG DECLENSION.

(*Nouns ending in a Consonant, and Masculines in* -e.)

	Masc.		*Fem.*		*Neut.*	
	Sing.	*Plural*	*Sing.*	*Plural.*	*Sing.*	*Plural.*
Nom.	hund	-as	spræc	-a	word	word
Gen.	hund-es	-a	spræc-e	-a -ena	word-es	-a
Dat. Abl.	hund-e	-um	spræc-e	-um	word-e	-um
Acc.	hund	-as	spræc-e	-a	word	word

FORMS OF THE TIME OF CHAUCER.

63. By this time most of the above inflexions had disappeared. Except a few traces of a dative singular in **-e**, inflexion in nouns had been reduced to the formation of the **plural number** and the **genitive case.**

1. The common plural inflexion was **-es** (Chaucer) or **-is** (Wiclif), shortened sometimes to **-s**, for which **z** is now and then found in words of Romance origin.

2. Plurals in **-en** or **-n** were rather more common than now, as *kncen, hosen, ashen, eyen, sustren, doughteren, lambren,* &c.

3. The genitive or possessive singular was formed by adding **-es** (Chaucer), **-is**, or **- ys** (Wiclif), or **-s**.

Feminine nouns occasionally have not **-s**, but **-e**, as '*heorte blood*' (heart's blood).

In the plural the genitive was usually not distinguished from the nominative, when the latter ended in *-s*. Otherwise *-es* was added, as *mennes*.

ADJECTIVE.

64. When we speak of a thing we often require to mention some quality or state of the thing, or its number or quantity, or some relation in which it stands to ourselves or to other things. The words that do this are called Adjectives.

65. In the phrase 'a white horse,' the word *white* is an adjective. It denotes a certain *quality* of the horse.

In the phrase 'a book lying on the table,' the word *lying* is an adjective. It denotes a state of the book.

In the phrase 'two men,' the word *two* is an adjective. It points out the *quantity* or *number* of that for which the noun stands.

In the phrase 'this child,' the word *this* is an adjective. It points out that the child *stands in a certain relation* (of nearness) to me.

66. Definition.—An **Adjective** is a word used with a noun to describe, to delimit,* or to indicate that for which the noun stands.

67. An adjective answers the questions (1) 'Of what sort?' or 'In what state?' (2) 'How much?' or 'How many?' (3) 'Which?'

68. When it is attached directly to the noun to which it refers, an adjective is said to be used *attributively;* as 'a *red ball;*' 'a *bird flying* through the air;' '*which* hand will you have?'

As things are *distinguished* by quality, quantity, and relation, an adjective joined to a noun usually *distinguishes* what the noun stands for from other things that may be named by the same noun.

Hence we may also have the following

69. Definition.—An **Adjective** is a word which limits the

* To *delimit* is 'to mark out the bounds or extent' of a thing.

application of a noun to that which has the quality or state, the quantity, or the relation, which the adjective denotes.

70. As an adjective is not the *name* of a separate object of thought, an adjective can never be used as the subject of a sentence, or as the object of a verb, or be governed by a preposition.

CLASSIFICATION OF ADJECTIVES.

71. Adjectives may be arranged in the following classes:—

1. **Qualitative Adjectives**, or **Adjectives of Quality.**
2. **Quantitative Adjectives**, or **Adjectives of Quantity.**
3. **Demonstrative Adjectives**, or **Adjectives of Relation.**

72. I. **Qualitative Adjectives**, or **Adjectives of Quality**, are adjectives which denote some **quality** or **attribute** (from the Latin *qualis*, 'of which sort'), as *virtuous*, *white*, *large*, *small*, *great*, *little* (in the sense of 'small'), *such*, *same*. The verbal adjectives called Participles belong to this class.

73. II. **Quantitative Adjectives**, or **Adjectives of Quantity** are adjectives which denote **how much** or **how many** of that for which the noun stands, we have in our thoughts (Latin *quantus*, 'how great'). This class includes—

a. The Cardinal Numeral Adjectives, **one, two, three,** &c. (The words *hundred*, *thousand*, *million*, like *pair* and *dozen*, are nouns.* They may be used in the plural, as *hundreds*.)

b. The words **all, any, some, half, many, few, much, more, most, both, several, none** or **no** (= *not any*). Some of these relate both to number and to quantity.

Examples. 'All men are mortal.' 'He sleeps all night.' 'Some men prefer this.' 'Give me some wine.' 'Wait half an hour.' 'Few persons will believe that.' 'I have much pleasure in doing this.'

* In Anglo-Saxon they were followed by the genitive case, as though we said 'A hundred of sheep,' &c.

74. III. **Demonstrative Adjectives,** or **Adjectives of Relation** (Latin *demonstro*, 'I point out') are adjectives which **point out** that which we are speaking of by indicating some kind of relation which it bears to others or to the speaker.

a. The Definite Article **the**, and the Indefinite Article **an** * or **a.**

b. The so-called Adjective Pronouns, or Pronominal Adjectives.

c. The Ordinal Numerals,† **first, second, third,** &c.

75. Adjectives are very often used without having the nouns to which they relate expressed. Thus, 'The *good* are happy;' *i.e.*, good people. 'Blessed are the *meek*;' *i.e.*, meek persons. Adjectives are then said to be used substantively.

INFLEXION OF ADJECTIVES.

76. Adjectives, in modern English, are not declinable words, with the exception of the words *this* and *that*, which have plural forms, *these* and *those.*

ANGLO-SAXON FORMS.

77. Adjectives preceded by a demonstrative word had their three genders declined like the masculine, feminine, and neuter nouns of the first declension.

When not preceded by a definitive word, adjectives were declined as follows:—

	Singular.			*Plural.*	
	Masc.	*Fem.*	*Neut.*	*M. and F.*	*Neut.*
Nom.	til (good)	til, -u	til	tile	tilu, -e
Gen.	tiles	tilre	tiles	tilra	tilra
Dat.	tilum	tilre	tilum	tilum	tilum
Acc.	tilne	tile	til	tile	tilu, -e
Abl.	tile	tilre	tile		

FORMS OF THE TIME OF CHAUCER.

78. By the time of Chaucer the various suffixes had been reduced to an inflexional *e* in the plural, especially of adjectives of one syllable, and of adjectives used substantively, and at the end of adjectives preceded by demonstratives and possessives.

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* The numeral *one* is used in more ways than one as an indenite demonstrative.

† It is a great mistake to class these among the Adjectives of Quantity. They do not point out *how much* or *how many* we are speaking of.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

79. Adjectives have three forms called Degrees of Comparison. These are

1. The Positive Degree.

2. The Comparative Degree.

3. The Superlative Degree.

80. The **Positive Degree** of an adjective is the adjective in its simple form, used to point out some quality or attribute of that which we speak about, as 'A *black* cat,' 'A *fine* day.'

81. The **Comparative Degree** of an adjective is that form of it by means of which we show that one thing,* or set of things, possesses a certain quality or attribute in a greater degree than another thing, or set of things.

82. The Comparative Degree (Latin *comparativus*, from *comparo*, 'I put together') is formed from the Positive by adding to it the syllable **-er**,† before which mute **-e** is dropped, as 'My knife is *sharper* than yours;' 'John's book is pretty, but mine is *prettier*;' Your parents are *richer* than mine.'

83. The **Superlative**‡ **Degree** of an adjective is that form of it which shows that a certain thing, or group of things, possesses the attribute denoted by the adjective *in a greater degree than any other among several, of which it is one.* It is formed by adding **st** or **est** to the adjective in the positive degree; as, *greatest, largest.* Thus, of several boys in a group, we may say, 'John is *the tallest*.' Of the countries of Europe we may say, 'England is *the wealthiest*.'

IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

84. In the case of some adjectives, the degrees of comparison

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* The word *thing* means generally whatever we can *think* about, *i.e.*, make a distinct object of thought, including *persons*, as well as what we commonly denominate things.

† In Anglo-Saxon the suffix was *-er* or *-or*; in declension dropping the vowel, and inflected according to the weak declension. The letter *r* is the softened form of a sibilant. In Gothic the suffix is *-iza*.

‡ Superlative (Lat. *superlativus*, from *superlatus*) means 'lifting up above.' The superlative degree *lifts* the thing that it is applied to *above* all the rest of the group.

are marked by what are commonly termed *irregular* forms. These are the following:

Positive.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
Good	better*	best
Little	less	least
Much†	more	most
Many	more	most
Bad	worse‡	worst
Late	later *or* latter	latest *or* last
[Nigh]	nigher	nighest *or* next
Fore	former	foremost *or* first
Old	older *or* elder	oldest *or* eldest
Far	farther	farthest
[Forth]	further	furthest

85. Adjectives of more than two syllables, and most adjectives of two syllables, do not allow of the formation of comparative and superlative degrees by means of suffixes. But the same ideas are denoted by prefixing the adverbs *more* and *most* to the adjective in the positive degree. Thus, we say, *Virtuous, more virtuous, most virtuous; Learned, more learned, most learned.*

86. The dissyllabic adjectives which do admit of suffixes of comparison are those ending in *-y* (*merry, merrier, merriest; holy, holier, holiest*); in *-er* (as *tender, tenderer, tenderest*); those in *-ble* (as *able, abler, ablest*); those which have the accent on the last syllable, as *polite, politer, politest; severe, severer, severest;* and some others, as *pleasanter, pleasantest; narrower, narrowest.*

ARTICLE.

87. The **Articles**§ are often classed as a separate part of speech, but they belong in reality to the class of **Adjectives.**

88. There are two Articles, the **Indefinite** Article **an** or **a,** and the **Definite** Article **the.**

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* *Better* and *best* (= *betest*) are formed (with vowel change) from an old word *bat* = 'good.' In old English the comparatives *bet, leng, ma*, throw off the suffix. The words *good, little, much, many*, and *bad* are not etymologically connected with the words used as their comparatives and superlatives.

† *Much* is the modern form of the Anglo-Saxon *micel* 'great' (compare μέγας and *mag-nus*). In old English *moe* (A S. *ma*) is found for *more* when referring to *number.*

‡ *Worse* (from A.S. *weor* 'bad') has the original *s* of the comparative suffix. (See note on § 82).

§ Latin *articulus*, 'a joint.'

89. The Indefinite Article **an** is another form of the numeral **one** (A.S. *ân*). It indicates that we are speaking either of *some one*, or of *any one* of the things for which the noun is a name, as, 'I saw *an* old man'; 'A child (*i.e.*, *any* child) should obey its parents.'

90. The form *an* is used before words beginning with a vowel sound or mute *h*, as *an apple*, *an heir*.

An drops the *n*,* and becomes *a* before words beginning with a consonant, the aspirate *h*, or the letter *u* when the sound of *y* is put before the *u* in pronunciation, as *A man*, *a horse*, *a yellow ball*, *a useful book*. But *an* is kept before the aspirate when the accent is not upon the first syllable of the word, as 'an historical event.'

91. The Definite Article **the** is used to define or mark the particular individual or individuals that we are speaking of.

92. The definite article is used in English before significant nouns.

(A) It is used to mark out or individualise out of all the things usually denoted by the name, that one to which attention is directed. It does this by directing attention to some attributive adjunct by which the individual is distinguished. Thus, when we say, *the black horse*, *the* points attention to the adjective *black*.

(B) The word *the* is used to show that one individual is taken as the representative of its class, as when we talk of *the lion*, *the eagle*, or to show that we are speaking of the whole of the class to which the name belongs, as when we speak of *the stars*, *the English*, *the good*, *the Alps*.

PRONOUN.

93. Pronouns (Latin *pro*, 'for,' *nomen*, 'name') are words which **denote persons or things without being names for them**; as when the speaker, instead of naming himself or the person to whom he is speaking says, '**I** am rich'; '**You** said so'; or uses a demonstrative pronoun to avoid the repetition of a noun, as '**John** has come home, **he** is very tired,' instead of 'John is very tired.'

Pronouns designate persons or things by indicating some relation in which they stand to other persons or things, and primarily to the speaker.

* In old English the form *a* or *o* is found for *an* (as *ae* in Scotch for *ane*) even when used s a numeral. We still say '*A* day or two'; 'They are both of *a* size,' *i.e.*, of *one* size.

CLASSIFICATION OF PRONOUNS.

94. Pronouns are divided into two classes, **Substantive Pronouns** and **Adjective Pronouns.**

95. **TABLE OF THE PRONOUNS.**

	Substantive.	*Adjective.*
I. Personal	I, thou, we, you or ye	
II. Demonstrative	he, she, it, they	this, that; such, yon
III. Relative.	that, as	
IV. Interrogative and Relative	who, what	which, what, whether
V. Indefinite	one, aught, naught	any, other, some
VI. Distributive	... ...	each, every, either, neither
VII. Possessive	... ...	mine *and* my, thine *and* thy, his, her *and* hers, its, our and *ours*, your *and* yours, their *and* theirs.
VIII. Reflective	self and selves in myself, ourselves, &c.	self and selves in himself, themselves, &c.

The Nominative Case 'I' is always written with a Capital letter.

I.—PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

96. The Personal Pronouns consist of

1. **The Personal Pronoun of the First Person.**
2. **The Personal Pronoun of the Second Person.**

97. The Personal Pronoun of the First Person is the pronoun which is used when a person speaks of himself singly, or of himself in conjunction with one or more others. It is made up of the following forms:—

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Nominative Case....	I	We
[*Possessive Case*]....	[Mine *or* My]	[Our]
Objective Case	Me	Us

98. The Personal Pronoun of the Second Person is the pronoun which is used when we speak of the person or persons spoken to. It is declinable, and has the following forms :—

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Nominative Case ..	Thou	Ye *or* You
[*Possessive Case*] ..	[Thine *or* Thy]	[Your]
Objective Case.....	Thee	You *or* Ye

99. In Anglo-Saxon only the singular forms of this pronoun were used in addressing a single person. In ordinary usage the singular is now restricted to solemn addresses, as in prayer to the Deity and in poetry.

100. The Personal Pronouns have, properly speaking, no Possessive Case, that is to say, no Possessive Case with the force of a *substantive*. In Anglo-Saxon, when the genitives of these pronouns were used in the *possessive* sense, they were regarded as adjectives and inflected accordingly.

101. ANGLO-SAXON FORMS.

	First Person.			Second Person.		
	Sing.	*Dual.*	*Plural.*	*Sing.*	*Dual.*	*Plural.*
Nom.	ic	wit	wé	*Nom.* þú	git	gé
Gen.	mín	uncer	úre (úser)	*Gen.* þín	incer	eówer
Dat.	mé	unc	ús	*Dat.* þé	inc	eów
Acc.	mé (mec)	unc (uncit)	ús (úsic)	*Acc.* þé (þec)	inc (incit)	eów(eówic)

FORMS OF THE TIME OF CHAUCER.

	First Person.		Second Person.	
	Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Nom.	Ich, Ik, I	we	thou, thow	ye
Gen.	min (myn) mi (my)	our, oure	thin (thyn), thi (thy)	your, youre
Obj.	me	us	the, thee	yow

II.—DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

102. The pronoun which is used as a simple substitute for a noun that has already been employed is often called the Personal Pronoun of the Third Person. It is more correct to call it the **Demonstrative Pronoun of the Third Person.** It has the following forms :—

	Singular.		
	Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Neuter.*
Nominative Case....	He	She	It
Possessive Case	His	Her	Its
Objective Case	Him*	Her	It

* *Him* was originally a *dative* case. It will be seen that the datives *him*, *her*, and *them*, like *me*, *thee*, *us*, and *you*, have supplanted the accusative forms.

	Plural.	
Nominative Case	They	For all genders.
Possessive Case ...	Their	
Objective Case	Them	

103. The genitive cases of this pronoun were not declined as adjectives in Anglo-Saxon, but may now be classed with the other possessives.

104. **ANGLO-SAXON FORMS.**

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	Masc.	*Fem.*	*Neut.*	
Nom.	hé	héó	hit	hí (hig)
Gen.	his	híre	his	híra (heora)
Dat.	him	híre	him	him (heom)
Acc.	hine	hí (hig)	hit	hí (hig)

FORMS OF THE TIME OF CHAUCER.

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	Masc.	*Fem.*	*Neut.*	*Of all Genders.*
Nom.	he	she, sche	hit, it	thei, they
Gen.	his	hire, hir	his	here (her, hire)
Obj.	him	hire, hir, here	hit, it	hem

THE DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES THIS AND THAT.

105. **This** and **That** may be used as **real demonstratives** (to point to things themselves). In this case *This* points to what is 'near me,' *That* points to what is 'at a distance from me,' as '*This* book,' '*That* chair.'

This and **That** may also be used as **logical demonstratives** (to refer to some description or name), as 'The general was in command of a large force. *This* force consisted of infantry and artillery.' 'They remained one day at Rome. *That* day passed without any remarkable event.'

When two things which have been already mentioned are referred to, *this* refers to what has been mentioned last, *that* refers to what was mentioned before it; as 'Virtue and vice offer themselves for your choice: *this* leads to misery, *that* to happiness.'

106. When used as *substantives*, that is, without being joined to a noun, or requiring a noun to be supplied, *this* and *that* should be termed **demonstrative pronouns.**

107. **ANGLO-SAXON FORMS.**

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	Mas.	*Fem.*	*Neut.*	*M. F. & N.*
Nom.	se (þe)	seó (þeó)	þæt	þá
Gen.	þæs	þǽre	þæs	Þára (þǽra)
Dat.	þam (þæm)	þǽre	þam (þæm)	Þám (þǽm)
Acc.	þone (Þæne)	þá	þæt	þá
Instr.	þý, þe	——	þý, þé	——

The instrumental case þy (*thy*) appears in the form *the* in such expressions as '*the* sooner *the* better,' = '*by how much* sooner, *by so much* better.'

III.—THE RELATIVE PRONOUN THAT.

108. A **Relative* Pronoun** is a word which **refers** to some noun or pronoun already used to denote the person or thing spoken about, and called the *antecedent* of the relative, and which **joins** the clause in which it stands to that which precedes it. Thus, in the sentence, 'He is reading about the battle that was fought at Hastings,' *that* refers to the noun *battle*, which is called the antecedent to the relative *that*, and joins the clause 'that was fought at Hastings' to the word 'battle' in the preceding clause.

109. The pronouns *who* and *which* are also used as relatives. In 'I have found the sheep *which* I had lost,' the pronoun *which* refers to *sheep*, and *sheep* is the antecedent to the relative *which*. In 'This is the man *whose* house we saw,' *whose* refers to *man*, and *man* is the antecedent to *whose*.

110. *That* cannot now be used in all cases where *who* can be used. A clause beginning with *that* limits or defines the noun to which it refers, and is therefore improper when that noun does not admit of further limitation. Hence we cannot say 'Thomas *that* died yesterday,' or 'My father *that* is in America.'

IV.—THE INTERROGATIVE AND RELATIVE PRONOUNS WHO, WHAT, WHICH, WHETHER.

111. The pronoun **who**, neuter **what** (A.S. *hwa*, neuter *hwæt*) was in Anglo-Saxon an Interrogative pronoun.

* *Relative* is a bad term, because it is insufficient. *He, she, it, this, that, they* are also (literally) *relative* pronouns, because they refer to some preceding substantive. The relative pronouns, however, differ from the demonstratives, by having a *grammatically connective* force.

Modern Forms.		Anglo-Saxon Forms.		
		Masc. *Fem.*		*Neut.*
Nom. Who	*Nom.*	hwá		hwæt
Pos. Whose	*Gen.*	hwæs		hwæs
Obj. Whom	*Dat.*	hwám (hwæm)		hwám (hwæm)
	Acc.	hwone (hwæne)		hwæt
	Inst.	——		hwí (hwý)

112. What has the neuter suffix *t*. It is the neuter of *who*. It is now indeclinable, and is used not only as a substantive, but also as an adjective. When used as a substantive it is neuter.

113. Which (A.S. *hwylc* or *hwilc*), is a compound of *hwí* or *hwý* (the old instrumental case of *hwa*), and *lic* (*like*). In Scotch it is still *quhilk*. It was equivalent to the Latin *qualis*, 'of what sort?'* It is properly an adjective, as "Which dress do you prefer?" but is also used substantively, as "Here are port and sherry, which will you take?" *Which* asks for one out of a definite number; *who* and *what* ask indefinitely.

114. Whether (A.S. *hwæðer*) is derived from *who* (*hwa*) by means of the suffix *ther*,† and means 'which of the two?'

WHO, WHAT, AND WHICH AS RELATIVES.

115. Who refers only to persons, and does not by its form mark gender, number, or person. Its antecedent is sometimes omitted, as "Who steals my purse, steals trash."

116. What was the neuter of *Who*, and as a substantive in the nominative or objective only denotes a thing, and now never relates to any antecedent except the neuter *that*, which, moreover, is always omitted.‡

* As "He wiste hwæt and hwylc þys wif wære," 'He would have known what and *of what sort* this woman was.'

† This *-ther* is the same as the *-ter* in *uter*, and the -τερος in πότερος, and implies a comparison or alternative between *two*.

‡ *What* is not a *compound word*, and therefore cannot be a *compound relative*. The laughable blunder is sometimes made of describing *what* as compounded of the beginning of *which* and the end of *that*.

The old genitive *whose* (= hwæs), however, is occasionally used as an ordinary relative in poetry, as: "The question *whose* solution I require" (*Dryden*); "I could a tale unfold *whose* lightest word," &c. (*Shakspere*).

117. Instead of *what*, the ordinary relative relating to animals or things is **which.**

118. It is, however, quite a mistake to call '*which*' the neuter of '*who*.' It was formerly used like 'who,' as "Our Father, *which* art in heaven."

119. *Which* preceded by a preposition is often replaced by *where*, as *wherein* = *in which*; *whereto* = *to which*, &c.

120. The relative pronoun is frequently understood, as, "That is the person I spoke of," "for the person *whom* I spoke of." But it is not now omitted unless, if expressed, it would be in the objective case.

121. The word **as** (A.S. *ealswa* = *also*, i.e., *all so*, German *als*) is often used as a substitute for a relative pronoun, especially after *same* and *such*; as, "This is not the same *as* that;" "His character is not such *as* I admire."

V.—INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

122. The numeral **one** is also an **Indefinite Pronoun.**

The numeral **one** is a sort of indefinite demonstrative when used as the article *an*. It has long been used in the sense of 'some—or other,' 'a certain.' Thus (as an **adjective**) "His wrath which *one* day will destroy ye both" (*Milton*); "*One* Titus Oates had drawn on himself censure, &c." (*Macaulay*). As a **substantive**, "*One* in a certain place testified" (*Heb.* ii. 6). It is very common after *some*, *each*, and *every*, and is even used in the plural, as "That the poor may fall by his strong *ones*" (*Ps.* x. 10); "These little *ones*." As an indefinite substantive it assumed the sense of the French *on* (= *homme*), as, "A quiet conscience makes *one* so serene" (*Byron*); "A sonnet to *one's* mistress" (*Shakspere*); "*One* can hardly believe it."

123. Aught (A.S. *áwiht*) is derived from the Anglo-Saxon substantive *wiht*, a 'thing,' which we still employ as a masculine in the noun *wight*, and *á* = *ever*. The negative of *aught* is **naught** or **nought.** The shorter form **not** is the same word.

124. Any (*ænig*) is a derivative from **án,** 'one,' just as **ullus** in Latin is a diminutive of **unus** (Key, *Lat. Gr.* § 334). In old English we find *ony*. It denotes either *number* or *quantity*.

125. Other means *one of two* (like the Latin *alter*). It is formed from the root *an*, a variation of the *al* of ἄλλος and *alter*, by means of the comparative suffix *ther* (see § 114. note). When used as a substantive it has the ordinary inflexions of a noun.

126. Some (A.S. *sum*) originally meant 'a certain' (Lat. *quidam*). It still has this force in *somebody, sometimes, something*. It now denotes an undetermined part of a whole.

VI.—THE DISTRIBUTIVE PRONOUNS.

127. Each (A.S. *ælc* = *á-ge-hwylc*,* *i.e.*, 'ever every one of a sort,') is used both adjectively and substantively.

128. In the phrases '**each other**,' '**one another**,' the two pronouns were formerly independent in their construction, as "With greedy force each other doth assail" (*Spenser*), i.e., "*each* doth assail *other*." So in old-fashioned English we find '**each to other**,' '**one from another**,' and so on. Nowadays *both* pronouns are placed after the preposition, as "They did not speak **to each other** for a week;" "They hear **from one another** daily." The pronouns must therefore now be regarded as forming a sort of compound like the Greek *alleloi*.

129. Every (old English *everælc* or *everilk*, that is, *ever each*) is a compound of A.S. *æfre*, 'ever,' and *ælc*, and denotes all of a series taken one by one.

130. Either has two meanings. 1. It means 'each of two,' as "On either side one" (*John* xix. 18). 2. It means 'one of two, but not both.'

131. Either may be inflected as a substantive of the singular number, as "Where either's fall determines both their fates."
Each, every, either and **neither** are always singular.

VII.—REFLECTIVE PRONOUNS.

132. The **objective case** of the Personal Pronouns, and of the demonstrative *he, she, it*, may be used in a **reflective sense** (Latin

* The particle *ge* was prefixed to the indefinite pronouns in Anglo-Saxon to give the idea of universality, as *ge-hwa* = *every one*; *ge-hwylc* = *every one*; *ge-hwæðer* = *both*. (Compare the German *Gebruder* and *Geschwister*). These forms were strengthened by prefixing *á* = *ever*. Hence came *á-ge hwylc* = *ælc* = *each*; *á-ge-hwæðer* = *ægðer* = *either*.

reflecto, 'I bend back'), when an action directly or indirectly affects the doer of it. Thus—

"I'll disrobe me" (Shakspere, *Cymb.* v. 1, 22.)

"I can buy me twenty" (*Macb.* iv. 2, 40).

"Prepare thee" (Sh. *M. Ven.* iv. 1, 324).

"Get thee wood enough" (*Tempest* ii. 2, 165).

"Signor Antonio commends him to you" (*M. V.* iii. 2, 235).

"Let every soldier hew him down a bough" (*Macb.* v. 44).

133. In Anglo-Saxon the personal pronouns, in whatever case they were used, were strengthened by having the adjective *silf*, i.e. *self* (=*same*, compare *selfsame*), agreeing with them ('I self,' &c.). This combination of pronoun and adjective is still seen in *himself*, *herself*, *themselves*, *oneself*, but in the case of the personal pronouns *self* came somehow to be regarded as a substantive, and was preceded by the possessive case (*myself*, *thyself*, *ourselves*, *yourselves*).

There is nothing *reflective* about *self*, either as adjective or as substantive (see, *e.g.*, "He himself said so"; "I love you for yourself alone, &c.). The reflective force belongs altogether to the pronoun to which it is appended, or, properly speaking, to the *verb* that denotes the *reflected action*.

VIII.—POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

134. Besides the simple possessives *her*, *our*, *your*, *their*, we use the secondary or double possessive forms, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*. These are only used when the noun to which they relate is not expressed, as, "My pen is a bad one, give me *yours*." In modern English *mine* and *thine* follow the same rule.

VERB.

135. Definition. A **verb** is a word by means of which we can **say something** about some person or thing.

136. The word which stands for what is spoken about is called the **subject** of the verb, and is in the **nominative case.** In relation to the **Subject**, the verb is called the **Predicate.**

137. A verb tells us with regard to what is spoken about that it **does something**, or that it **is in some state**, or that it **has something done to it.**

CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS.

138. Verbs are divided into two classes—

1. Transitive* Verbs. 2. Intransitive Verbs.

A **Transitive Verb** is one which denotes an action or feeling which is directed towards some object: as, *strike*, "He *strikes* the ball;" *love*, "He *loves* his father." The word which stands for the object of the action described by the verb is called the **object of the verb.** It is put in the objective case. The *grammatical* object of a *verb* must not be confounded with the *real* object of the *action*.

An **Intransitive Verb** is one which denotes a *state* or *condition*, or an action or feeling which is not directed towards an object; as, *to be*, *to dwell*, *to sit*, *to rejoice*, *to run*. Verbs of this kind are sometimes called Neuter Verbs.

139. Many verbs are used, with a difference of meaning, sometimes as transitive verbs, sometimes as intransitive verbs; as, "He *ran* away;" "He *ran* a thorn into his finger." "The child *speaks* already," "He *speaks* several languages." A transitive verb is used reflectively when followed by a reflective pronoun. This is often omitted,† as "The sea breaks (itself) on the rocks;" "The earth moves (itself)." In old English intransitive verbs were often followed by a pronoun used reflectively as, "Hie thee home;" "Fare thee well;" "Sit thee down." Some compound verbs are used curiously in this way, as, "To over-sleep oneself;" "He over-ate himself;" "Vaulting ambition which o'erleaps itself."

Transitive verbs are sometimes used with a sort of passive signification, as: "The meat cuts tough," *i.e.*, 'is tough when it is cut;' "The cakes eat short and crisp," *i.e.*, 'are short and crisp when they are eaten;' "The book sold well."

INFLEXIONS OF VERBS.

140. Verbs admit of the following modifications:—**Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, Person.**

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* Latin *transire*, "to go across;" the action passes over, as it were, from the doer of it to the object of it.

† It is only in this case that a *verb* can properly be said to be a *reflective verb*. Compare the difference between *lavat se* and *lavatur* in Latin, and between τύπτει ἑαυτόν and τύπτεται in Greek. Several intransitive verbs were once reflective, as, *wend* (*went*), *abscond*, *venture*, *depart*, *consort*, *retire*, &c.

These are expressed partly by **inflexion**, partly by the use of **auxiliary verbs.**

A verb is a *notional* verb, when it is so used as to retain its full and proper meaning, as "I *will* go" (*i.e.*, 'I am resolved to go'); "You *may* play in the garden" (*i.e.*, 'You are permitted to play').

A verb is an *auxiliary* verb when its own proper signification drops out of sight, and it merely serves to mark some modification of the notion expressed by another verb. Thus in "He *will* fall," '*will*' does not imply that he is resolved to fall, but only marks futurity. In "I work hard that I *may* gain the prize," *may* does not express permission, but helps to indicate the subjunctive mood of the verb 'gain.'

VOICE.

141. Voice is the form of a verb by means of which we show whether the **subject** of the sentence stands for the **doer**, or for the **object** of the action spoken of by the verb. There are two voices—

1. The Active Voice. 2. The Passive Voice.

The **Active Voice** is made up of those forms of a verb which denote that the **subject** of the sentence stands for the **doer of the action** described by the verb; as, "The boy *strikes* the ball." "The cat *killed* the mouse."

The **Passive Voice** is made up of those forms of a verb which denote that the **subject** of the sentence stands for the **object of the action** described by the verb; as, "The ball *is struck* by the boy." The mouse *was killed* by the cat."

142. The same action may be expressed by either voice, but then the word that is the *object* of the active verb must be the *subject* of the passive verb.

In the strict sense of the above definition only transitive verbs can properly be used in the passive voice. But in English a noun (or pronoun) in the objective case following a verb and preposition, or the indirect object of a verb, may be made the subject of a complex passive phrase, as, "He spoke to the man—The man was spoken to." "They took great care of him—He was taken great care of."

143. The **Passive Voice** of a verb is formed by prefixing the

various parts of the verb **be** to the **perfect participle** of the verb. The perfect participle of a transitive verb is **passive** in meaning.

Some intransitive verbs have their perfect tenses formed by means of the verb *be*, followed by the past or perfect participle; as, "I *am* come"; "He *is* gone." Great care must be taken not to confound these with passive verbs. The sign of the passive voice is not the verb *be*, but the *passive participle* that follows it.

MOOD.

144. Moods* (that is **Modes**) are certain variations of form in verbs, by means of which we can show the mode or manner in which the action or fact denoted by the verb is connected in our thought with the thing that is spoken of.

145. There are four moods:—

A. Three Finite Moods.

1. **The Indicative Mood.**
2. **The Imperative Mood.**
3. **The Subjunctive Mood.**

B. The Infinitive Mood.

THE FINITE MOODS.

1.—THE INDICATIVE MOOD.

146. The **Indicative Mood** comprises those forms of a verb which are used when a statement, question, or supposition has relation to some event or state of things which is regarded by the speaker as actual, and independent of his thought about it; as, "He *struck* the ball;" "We *shall set* out to-morrow"; "If he *was* guilty,† his punishment *was* too light."

2.—THE IMPERATIVE MOOD.

147. The Imperative Mood is a form of the verb by means of which we utter a command, request, or exhortation; as, "*Give* me

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* *Mood* comes from the Latin *modus*, "*manner*"; *Indicative* from *indicare*, "*to point out*"; *Imperative* from *imperare*, "*to command*"; *Subjunctive* from *subjungere*, "*to join on to*"; *Infinitive* from *infinitus*, "*unlimited*," i.e., as regards person, number, &c.

† This *conditional use* of the Indicative Mood must not be confounded with the subjunctive or (as it is sometimes called) *Conditional Mood*.

that book." "*Go* away." The subject of a verb in the imperative mood is usually omitted, but may be expressed, as, "Go *thou* and do likewise."

3.—THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

148. The Subjunctive Mood comprises those forms of a verb which are used when a statement, question, or supposition has relation to an event or state of things which is only *thought of*, and which is not treated by the speaker as *matter of fact*, independent of his thought about it.

Hence the Subjunctive is employed to express a *will* or *wish* (as "Thy kingdom *come*"); in clauses denoting *purpose* (as "See that all *be* in readiness"; "Govern well thy appetite, lest sin *surprise* thee"); in clauses denoting the purport of a wish or command (as "The sentence is that the prisoner *be* imprisoned for life"); to express a supposition or wish contrary to the fact, or not regarded as brought to the test of actual fact (as "If he *were* here he would think differently"; "Oh! that it *were* possible").

149. The three finite moods of verbs may be described as the **Mood of Fact** (Indicative), the **Mood of Conception** (Subjunctive), and the **Mood of Volition** (Imperative).

THE VERB AS A SUBSTANTIVE.

1.—THE INFINITIVE MOOD.

150. The **Infinitive Mood** expresses the action or state denoted by the verb without reference to person, number, or time. It may be attached to a subject in dependent phrases, as "I saw *him fall*," "I know *him to be* honest." This use justifies us in calling it a 'Mood' (see definition). It commonly has the force of a substantive, and may be used either as the subject or as the object of another verb, or after certain prepositions (namely *to* and *but*). When thus used it is not properly a mood at all.

151. The preposition *to* is not an essential part of the infinitive mood, nor an invariable sign of it. Many verbs (as *may*, *can*, *shall*, *will*, *must*, *let*, *dare*, *do*, *bid*, *make*, *see*, *hear*, *feel*, *need*) are followed by the simple infinitive without *to*, as "You may *speak*"; "Bid me *discourse*"; "He made me *laugh*"; "I had rather not *tell* you."

152. In Anglo-Saxon, the infinitive mood ended in *-an*, and when used as such, had no *to* before it. A verb in the infinitive might be the subject or object of another verb. The infinitive was, however, treated as a declinable abstract noun, and a dative form (called the *gerund*), ending in *-anne*, or *-enne*, and preceded by the preposition *to*, was used to denote *purpose*. But this gerund with *to* came to be used in place of the simple infinitive, as the subject or object of another verb, and so we say, "*To err* is human, *to forgive* divine"; "I hope *to see* you."

As this infinitive preceded by *to* has come to us from the Anglo-Saxon gerund, it is called the *gerundial infinitive.*

2.—THE GERUND.

153. A **Gerund** is a **substantive** formed from a verb by the suffix **-ing,** and which, when formed from a transitive verb, has the governing power of the verb, as, "He escaped by *crossing* the river."

The gerunds of the verbs *have* and *be* help to form compound gerunds, as "He went crazy through *having lost* his fortune"; "He is desirous of *being admired.*"

154. Gerunds are used either as subjects or as objects of verbs, or after prepositions, as "I like *reading*," "He is fond of *studying* mathematics.'

155. Participles (being adjectives) are never used as the subjects or objects of verbs, or after prepositions.

THE VERB AS AN ADJECTIVE.

PARTICIPLES.

156. Participles are verbal adjectives. They are so called because they *partake* of the nature both of a verb and of an adjective (Latin *participare*, 'to partake').

There are two participles formed by inflexion, the **Imperfect Participle** and the **Perfect Participle.** The imperfect participle always ends in *ing.* When formed from a transitive verb, it may have an object, as, "*Hearing the noise*, I went to the window." The perfect participle in verbs of the Strong Conjugation ends in *-en;* in verbs of the Weak Conjugation it ends in *-d*, *-ed*, or *-t.* The Imperfect Participle is always *active*, the Perfect

Participle is *passive*, provided the verb be a transitive verb; as, "I saw a boy *beating* a dog." "*Frightened* by the noise he ran away."

Even in the perfect tenses, as "I *have written* a letter," the origin of the construction is, "I have a letter *written*," where *written* is an adjective agreeing with *letter*; in Latin, *Habeo epistolam scriptam.*

157. The participles are often used as mere adjectives of quality, as "A *striking* remark"; "The *dreaded* hour has come."

TENSE.

158. Tenses (Latin *tempus*, 'time') are varieties of form in verbs, or compound verbal phrases made with the help of auxiliary verbs, which indicate partly the **time** to which an action or event is referred, and partly the **completeness** or **incompleteness** of the event at the time referred to.

159. There are three divisions of time—the Present, the Past, and the Future. There are also three ways in which an action or event may be viewed:—

1. It may be spoken of as **incomplete**, or still going on. A tense which indicates this is called an **imperfect** tense.

2. It may be spoken of as **complete**. A tense which indicates this is called a **perfect tense.**

3. It may be spoken of as one whole, without describing it as complete or incomplete in relation to other actions. A tense which does this is called an **indefinite tense.**

160. An action may be viewed in these three ways with reference to past, to present, or to future time. We thus get

NINE PRIMARY TENSES.

A. 1. The **Past Imperfect** (or **Progressive**), showing that at a certain past time an action was going on, as, *I was writing; I was being taught.*

2. The **Past Perfect**, showing that at a certain past time an action was complete; as, *I had written; I had been taught.*

3. The **Past Indefinite** (or Preterite), speaking of the action as one whole referred to past time; as, *I wrote; I was taught.*

B.
1. The **Present Imperfect** (or **Progressive**), showing that an action is going on at the present time; as, *I am writing; I am being taught.*
2. The **Present Perfect**, showing that at the present time a certain action is complete; as, *I have written; I have been taught.*
3. The **Present Indefinite**, speaking of the action as one whole, referred to present time; as, *I write; I am taught.*

C.
1. The **Future Imperfect** (or **Progressive**), showing that at a certain future time an action will be going on; as, *I shall be writing; I shall be being taught.*
2. The **Future Perfect**, showing that at a certain future time an action will be complete; as, *I shall have written; I shall have been taught.*
3. The **Future Indefinite**, speaking of an action as one whole, referred to future time; as, *I shall write; I shall be taught.*

161. From this table it appears at once that *perfect* and *past* are not the same. When we say, "*I have written*," although the act of writing took place in past time, yet the *completeness* of the action (which is what the tense indicates) is referred to *present time*. Hence the tense is a *present* tense.

SECONDARY TENSES.

162. Besides the primary tenses, we have the following :—

The **Present Perfect of continued action**—I *have been writing.*

The **Past Perfect of continued action**—I *had been writing.*

The **Future Perfect of continued action**—I *shall have been writing.*

COMPLEX FORMS OF INDEFINITE TENSES.

163. The Present and Past Indefinite Tenses are often replaced by compound forms made with the auxiliary verb *do*, thus :—

"You do assist the storm" (Shakspere, *Temp.* i. 1, 15).

"They set bread before him and he did eat" (2 *Sam.* xii. 20).

These forms become emphatic when a stress is laid upon the auxiliary verb. They are commonly employed in negative and interrogative sentences.

FORMATION OF TENSES IN THE ACTIVE VOICE.

164. The **Present Indefinite** and the **Past Indefinite** in the Active Voice are the only two tenses formed by **inflexion.**

The **Imperfect** tenses are formed by the indefinite tenses of the verb *be*, followed by the imperfect participle.

The **Perfect** tenses are formed by means of the indefinite tenses of the verb *have*, followed by the perfect participle.

The **Future** tenses are formed by means of the auxiliary verbs *shall* and *will*, followed by the infinitive mood: *shall* being used for the first person, *will* for the second and third in affirmative principal sentences; but in subordinate clauses, after a relative, or such words as *if*, *when*, *as*, *though*, *unless*, *until*, &c., the verb *shall* is used for all three persons; as, "If it *shall* be proved"; "When He shall appear we shall be like Him."

USE OF THE TENSES.

165. The **Present Indefinite** Tense is used:

1. To state what is actually taking place, as, "Here *comes* the rain."
2. To state what frequently or habitually takes place, or is universally true, as, "It *rains* here daily;" "Honesty *is* the best policy."
3. In lively narrations a person often imagines himself to be present at the events he is describing, and so uses the present tense (*Historic Present*) in speaking of past events.
4. It is used for the future when the real time is fixed by the context, as, "We *start* next Monday for the Continent."

166. Besides its ordinary use, the Past Indefinite Tense is used:

1. With the force of an Imperfect, as, "They *danced* while I *played*."
2. To express what happened frequently or habitually, as, "In those days people *ate* without forks."

NUMBER.

167. Number is a modification of the form of a verb, by means of which we show whether the verb is spoken of one person or thing, or of more than one. There are, therefore, two numbers in verbs, the **Singular** and the **Plural,** corresponding to the two numbers in substantives.

PERSON.

168. Person is a modification of the form of verbs, by which we indicate whether the speaker speaks of himself, or speaks of the person or persons addressed, or speaks of some other person or thing.

There are three persons.*

1. **The First Person.**
2. **The Second Person.**
3. **The Third Person.**

The **First Person** is used when the speaker speaks of himself either singly or with others.

The **Second Person** is used when the subject of the verb stands for the person or persons spoken to.

The **Third Person** is used when the subject of the verb denotes neither the speaker nor the person spoken to.

CONJUGATION OF VERBS.

169. The Conjugation of a Verb is the formation of all the inflexions and combinations used to indicate Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person.

170. There are two classes of verbs in English, distinguished by the formation of the Preterite. These are—

A. **Verbs of the Strong Conjugation.**
B. **Verbs of the Weak Conjugation.**

THE STRONG CONJUGATION.

171. The preterite of verbs of the Strong Conjugation is formed by modifying the vowel-sound of the root.

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* The inflexions by which Person is marked were originally Personal Pronouns. These can be traced in various languages. The characteristic consonants of the suffixes for the three persons were respectively (1) *m*, (2) *t* (softened to *s*, to which *t* was sometimes added), (3) *t*. We still see (1) *m* in *am*, i.e., *asm* (from root *as* or *es*); (2) t in *art*, (i.e., *ast* with *s* softened to *r*), *st* in find-*est*, &c.; (3) *t* = *th*, softened to *s*, in find-*eth*, &c. (*Koch* i. p. 322.

The Perfect Participle of all verbs of the Strong Conjugation was originally formed by the (adjective) suffix **-en** and the prefixed particle **ge**. The suffix *-en* has now disappeared from many verbs, and the prefix *ge* from all.

This Conjugation contains no verbs but such as are of the old Teutonic stock of the language.

THE WEAK CONJUGATION.

172. The preterite of verbs of the Weak Conjugation is formed by adding *-ed*, or *-t* to the stem, *e* final (if there is one) being omitted, as wait-ed, lov-ed, deal-t.

In several verbs the suffix has vanished, though its previous existence is sometimes seen either in the weakening of the vowel of the stem, or in the change of final *d* into *t*, as *meet, met; bend, bent.*

173. This suffix is in reality a preterite form of the verb *do*, which was shortened in Anglo-Saxon into *-de* or *-te*.
It thus appears that in origin as well as in meaning, *I loved* is equivalent to *I love did*, or *I did love*.

174. The perfect participle of most verbs of the weak conjugation is the same in form as the preterite.

This conjugation contains many verbs of the old Teutonic stock of English; some verbs once of the Strong Conjugation; all verbs of Norman, French, or foreign origin; and all fresh formations.

175. A.—VERBS OF THE STRONG CONJUGATION.

1. *Verbs in which the preterite is formed by vowel-change, and the perfect participle has the suffix* -en *or* -n.

	Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
(*a.*)	blow	blew	blown	draw	drew	drawn
	crow	crew	[crowed] *once* crown	fly	flew	flown
				lie	lay	lien *or* lain
	grow	grew	grown			
	know	knew	known	slay	slew	slain
	throw	threw	thrown	see	saw	seen
	show	[shew]* *or* showed	shown			

* A provincial form, found also in Spenser.

	Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
(*b.*)	drive	drove *or* drave	driven	stride	strode	stridden
	give	gave	given	strike	struck	stricken
	ride	rode	ridden	strive	strove	striven
	(a)rise	(a)rose	(a)risen	thrive	throve	thriven
	smite	smote	smitten	write	wrote	written
(*c.*)	forsake	forsook	forsaken	take	took	taken
	shake	shook	shaken			

2. *In most of the following verbs there is a tendency to assimilate the vowel-sound of the preterite to that of the perfect participle.*

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
bear	bare *or* bore	borne *or* born *	swear	sware *or* swore	sworn
beat	beat	beaten	tear	tare *or* tore	torn
break	brake *or* broke	broken	wear	wore	worn
cleave†	clave *or* clove	cloven *or* cleft	weave	wove	woven *or* wove
shear‡	shore	shorn	choose §	chose	chosen
speak	spake *or* spoke	spoken	freeze	froze	frozen
steal	stole	stolen	tread	trode *or* trod	trodden *or* trod

3. *In the following verbs the preterite has a second form, which is only the perfect participle transformed into a preterite.*

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
begin	began *or* begun‖	begun	get	gat *or* got	gotten *or* got
bid	bade *or* bid	bidden *or* bid	ring	rang *or* rung‖	rung
drink	drank *or* drunk‖	drunken ¶ *or* drunk	shrink	shrank *or* shrunk‖	shrunken ¶ *or* shrunk
sing	sang *or* sung‖	sung	spring	sprang *or* sprung‖	sprung
sink	sank *or* sunk‖	sunken ¶ *or* sunk	stink	stank *or* stunk	stunk
spin	span *or* spun	spun	strike	strake *or* struck	stricken ¶ *or* struck
spit	spat *or* spit	spit *or* spat	swim	swam *or* swum‖	swum

* *Born* is now used only with reference to *birth*. *Borne* means *carried*.
† Also weak, *cleave, cleft, cleft*.
‡ Also of the weak conjugation.
§ *Chese* was an old form of the present.
‖ These forms are now usually avoided by the best writers.
¶ These forms are now used only as adjectives.

4. *In the following verbs the preterite is the perfect participle used as a preterite.*

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
bind	bound	bound
bite	bit	bitten *or* bit
burst	burst	burst
chide	chid	chidden *or* chid
climb	clomb	[clomben]
cling	clung	clung
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
fling	flung	flung
grind	ground	ground
hang	hung	hung
hide	hid	hidden *or* hid
shoot	shot	shotten *or* shot
slide	slid	slidden *or* slid
sling	slung	slung
slink	slunk	slunk
slit	slit	slit
stick	stuck	stuck
string	strung	strung
swing	swung	swung
win	won	won
wind	wound	wound
wring	wrung	wrung

5. *In the following verbs the perfect participle has been borrowed from the preterite.*

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
abide	abode	abode
awake	awoke	awoke
heave	hove	[hoven]
hold	held	holden *or* held
let	let	let
shine	shone	shone *or* shined
seethe	sod	sodden *or* sod
sit	sat	sat
stand	stood	stood
strike	struck	stricken *or* struck
take	took	taken *or* took
spit	spat *or* spit	spat *or* spit

6. *Unclassified Forms.*

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
eat	ate *or* eat	eaten
dig	dug	dug
[bequeath]	quoth	
run	ran	run
come	came	come

B.—VERBS OF THE WEAK CONJUGATION.

173. Besides the large class of what are frequently called Regular Verbs, because the preterite and perfect participle are uniformly made by the simple addition of *-ed*, which includes all verbs of French or Latin origin, the following verbs belong to the Weak Conjugation :—

1. *Verbs in which the addition of the suffix* d *or* t *is accompanied by a shortening of the vowel-sound of the root.*

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
bereave	bereft	bereft	kneel	knelt	knelt
creep	crept	crept	leave	left	left
deal	dealt	dealt	lose	lost	lost
dream	dreamt	dreamt	mean	meant	meant
feel	felt	felt	sleep	slept	slept
flee	fled	fled	sweep	swept	swept
hear	heard	heard	weep	wept	wept
keep	kept	kept	shoe	shod	shod

2. *Verbs in which the suffix has been dropped after the shortening of the vowel.*

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
bleed	bled	bled	meet	met	met
breed	bred	bred	read	read	read
feed	fed	fed	speed	sped	sped
lead	led	led	light	lit	lit

3. *Verbs in which the addition of* d *or* t *is accompanied by a change in the vowel-sound of the root.*

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
beseech	besought	besought	seek	sought	sought
buy	bought	bought	teach	taught	taught
catch	caught	caught	think	thought	thought
bring	brought	brought	tell	told	told
sell	sold	sold			

4. *Verbs in which the suffix* te *has disappeared, but has changed a final flat mute into a sharp mute.*

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
bend	bent	bent	build	built	built *or* builded
blend	blended	blent			
gild	gilt *or* gilded	gilt *or* gilded	rend	rent	rent
			send	sent	sent
gird	girt *or* girded	girt *or* girded	spend	spent	spent
			wend	went *or* wended	wended
lend	lent	lent			

5. *Verbs in which the suffix has disappeared without further change.*

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*
cast	cast	cast	set	set	set
cost	cost	cost	shed	shed	shed
cut	cut	cut	shred	shred	shred
hit	hit	hit	shut	shut	shut
hurt	hurt	hurt	slit	slit	slit
knit	knit	knit	split	split	split
put	put	put	spread	spread	spread
rid	rid	rid	thrust	thrust	thrust

6. *Verbs which have preserved the formation of the strong c the perfect participle.*

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*
go	———	gone	shape	shaped
[en]grave	[en]graved	[en]graven *or* engraved	shave	shaved
help	helped	holpen *or* helped	shew	shewed
hew	hewed	hewn *or* hewed	sow	sowed
load	loaded	laden *or* loaded	strew	strewed
melt	melted	molten *or* melted		
mow	mowed	mown *or* mowed	swell	swelled
rive	rived	riven *or* rived	wash	washed
saw	sawed	sawn *or* sawed	wax	waxed

7. *Verbs not included in the preceding classes.*

Pres.	*Pret.*	*P. Part.*	*Pres.*	*Pret.*
clothe	clad	clad	lay	laid
freight	freighted	fraught *or* freighted	say	said
work	wrought *or* worked	wrought *or* worked	have	had (*i.e.* haved)
			make	made (*i e.* maked)

PERSONAL INFLEXIONS OF AN ENGLISH VE

177. The following table exhibits the personal *infl* verb. Let a single stroke (————) stand for the mood (without *to*), and a double stroke (═══) f person singular of the past indefinite tense.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

	Singular.		Plural.
1.	————		1. ————
2.	————	est *or* st	2. ————
3.	————	eth, es, *or* s.	3. ————

Past Indefinite Tense.

	Singular.		Plural.
1.	═══		1. ═══
2.	═══	est *or* st.	2. ═══
3.	═══		3. ═══

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

	Singular.		Plural.
1.	_____	1.	_____
2.	_____	2.	_____
3.	_____	3.	_____

Past Indefinite Tense.

The same as in the Indicative Mood.

The suffix *es* is added to verbs ending in a sibilant (as *pass-es*, *catch-es*) ; *o* (as *go-es*, *do-es*) ; or *y* preceded by a consonant, as *fli-es*, *piti-es*. If a verb ends in *ic*, *c* is changed to *ck* before *-ing*, *-ed*, or *th-e*, to preserve the hard sound of the *c*, as *trafficking*, *mimicked*.

VERBAL INFLEXIONS IN ANGLO-SAXON.

178.—A. Verbs of the Strong Conjugation.

Niman (*to take*).

Inf.—niman. *Imp. Part.*—nimende. *Perf. Part.*—(ge)numen.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.		*Preterite Tense.*	
Sing.	*Plural.*	*Sing.*	*Plural.*
1. nime	nimaþ	1. nám	námon
2. nimest	nimaþ	2. náme	námon
3. nimeþ	nimaþ	3. nám	námon

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Tense.		*Preterite Tense.*	
Sing.	*Plural.*	*Sing.*	*Plural.*
1, 2, and 3. nime	nimen	1, 2, and 3. náme	námen

Creópan (*to creep*).

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.		*Preterite Tense.*	
Sing.	*Plural.*	*Sing.*	*Plural.*
1. creópe	creópaþ	1. creap	crupon
2. crýpst	creópaþ	2. crupe	crupon
3. crýpþ	creópaþ	3. creap	crupon

Let particular attention be paid to the inflexions of the Preterite Tense, especially the absence of *-st* in the second person singular, and the curious change of vowel.

179.—B. Verbs of the Weak Conjugation.

Lufjan (*to love*).

Inf.—lufjan. *Imp. Part.*—lufjende (lufigende).

Perf. Part.—(ge)lufod.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.		*Preterite Tense.*	
Sing.	*Plural.*	*Sing.*	*Plural.*
1. lufje (lufige)	lufjaþ (lufigeaþ)	1. lufode	lufodon
2. lufast	lufjaþ (lufigeaþ)	2. lufodest	lufodon
3. lufaþ	lufjaþ (lufigeaþ)	3. lufode	lufodon

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Tense.		*Preterite Tense.*	
Sing.	*Plural.*	*Sing.*	*Plural.*
1, 2, and 3. lufje (lufige)	lufjen (lufigen)	lufode	lufoden

Imperative.—*Sing.*, lufa. *Plural*, lufjaþ.

VERBAL INFLEXIONS IN CHAUCER.

180. The Infinitive ends in **-en** or **-e**. The Imperfect Participle ends in **-yng** or **-ynge**. The Past Participle of Strong Verbs ends in **-en** or **-e**; that of Weak Verbs in **-ed** or **-d** (sometimes in **-et** or **-t**), and often has the prefix **ge-**, or its weakened form **i-**.

The inflected gerund is occasionally found (as 'to seene,' *Kn. T.* 177).

The Present Indicative has in the Singular the suffixes (1) **e**, (2) **est**, (3) **eth**, and in the Plural **-en** or **-e** for all persons.

The same inflexions occur in the Preterite Indicative of Weak Verbs.

The Preterite of Strong Verbs has **-e** in the Second Person Singular, and **-en** or **-e** in all persons of the plural.

The Present and Preterite Subjunctive have **-e** in all persons of the Singular and **-en** in all persons of the Plural.

The Imperative ends in **-eth** in the Plural, and (in some classes of verbs) in **-e** in the Singular.

DEFECTIVE AND ANOMALOUS VERBS.

181. The verbs *shall*, *will*, *may*, *must*, *can*, *dare*, *wit* are *defective*; that is, have not the full complement of moods and tenses.

A peculiarity which all these verbs (except *will*) have in common, is, that the present tense is in reality a preterite of the strong conjugation, which has replaced an older present, and has had its own place supplied by a secondary preterite of the weak conjugation. One consequence of this is, that they **none of them take -s as a suffix in the third person singular**, as that suffix does not belong to the preterite tense. They take after them the infinitive without *to*.

182.

SHALL.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.		*Past Indefinite Tense.*	
Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
1. [I] shall	1. [We] shall*	1. [I] should	1. [We] should
2. [Thou] shalt†	2. [You] shall	2. [Thou] shouldst	2. [You] should
3. [He] shall	3. [They] shall	3. [He] should	3. [They] should

Subjunctive Mood.

Past Indefinite Tense.

Singular...1. [I] should. 2. [Thou] shouldest *or* shouldst. 3. [He] should.
Plural.....1. [We] should. 2. [You] should. 3. [They] should.

In Anglo-Saxon 'I shall' often means 'I owe.'‡ Thus (in *Luke* xvi. 5) we find "Hu micel scealt thou?" ("How much shalt thou?")

The verb then came to indicate obligation arising from some external authority, or the force of fate or circumstances. Thus "Thou shalt not steal"; "Ye shall not surely die," *i.e.*, "There is surely no edict that ye shall die"; "He demanded where Christ should be born," *i.e.*, 'was destined to be born,' &c.

When *shall* (*should*, &c.) retains this meaning of *obligation* or *necessity*, it is a principal or notional verb. When it is used as a mere auxiliary, the idea of *obligation* disappears.

183.

WILL.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.		*Past Indefinite Tense.*	
Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
1. [I] will	1. [We] will	1. [I] would	1. [We] would
2. [Thou] wilt	2. [You] will	2. [Thou] wouldst	2. [You] would
3. [He] will	3. [They] will	3. [He] would	3. [They] would

Subjunctive Mood.

Past Indefinite Tense—Like the Indicative.

Will is followed by the infinitive without *to*; as, "He *will* not obey."

This verb is also used to express determination or intention. When used in this sense the verb may be conjugated like an ordinary verb.

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* In Anglo-Saxon the plural form was *sculon* or *sceolon*. Chaucer uses *shal* in the singular and *shul* in the plural.

† The *t* in *shalt*, *wilt*, and *art*, *wast* and *wert* is a very ancient form of the suffix.

‡ According to Grimm *shall* or *skal* is the perfect of a verb meaning *to kill*. As killing involved the payment of the penalty or *wer-geld*, 'I have killed' came to mean 'I owe the fine,' and thence 'I owe' simply.

184. MAY.

Indicative and Subjunctive Moods.

Present Indefinite Tense.		*Past Indefinite Tense.*	
Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
1. [I] may	1. [We] may	1. [I] might	1. [We] might
2. [Thou] mayest *or* mayst	2. [You] may	2. [Thou] mightest	2. [You] might
3. [He] may	3. [They] may	3. [He] might	3. [They] might

185. The verb *may* formerly denoted the possession of strength or power to do anything.* It now indicates the absence of any physical or moral obstacle to an action, as "A man may be rich and yet not happy"; "He might be seen any day walking on the pier," *i.e.*, 'there was nothing to hinder his being seen.' When thus used it is a *principal* or *notional* verb.

The verb *may* is often employed as a mere auxiliary of the subjunctive after *that* and *lest*. Instead of "Give me this water that I thirst not," we now say "that I may not thirst."

MUST.

186. This verb has now no variations of form for tense or person. When it refers to past time it is now usually followed by the perfect infinitive, as "That must have been delightful."

187. The modern form *must* is borrowed from the old preterite, in which *s* is a softened form of the *t* in *mot* before the suffix *-te* (compare *wist*).

188. CAN.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.		*Past Indefinite Tense.*	
Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
1. [I] can	1. [We] can	1. [I] could	1. [We] could
2. [Thou] canst	2. [You] can	2. [Thou] couldest *or* couldst	2. [You] could
3. [He] can	3. [They] can	3. [He] could	3. [They] could

Subjunctive Mood.

Past Indef. Tense—Like the Indicative.

The *l* in *could* does not properly belong to the verb. It has been inserted to make it agree in form with *should* and *would*.

* Thus in *Matt.* viii. 2, for "Thou *canst* make me clean" we find in Anglo-Saxon "Þu miht me geclænsian"; in Wiclif's version, "Thou maist make me clene."

The old meaning of the verb is '**to know**,' a sense which it still bears in Chaucer, and which is preserved in the form 'to con.'

The adjective *cunning* is the old Imperfect Participle of the verb. The adjective *uncouth* is a compound of the Past Participle, and in Milton means "unknown" (*Lycidas*, 186).

OUGHT.

189. Ought is the preterite tense of the verb **to owe** ("He said you *ought* him a thousand pounds," *Shakspere*). It is now used as a present tense. "He ought to do it" means "He owes the doing of it."

WIT.

190. To wit (A. S. *witan*) means 'to know.' The present tense is 'I **wot**,' 'God **wot**' = 'God knows.' The Preterite Tense is 'I **wist**.'* The old participle is preserved in *unwittingly*.

DARE.

191. I dare is an old preterite, now used as a present. The third person is therefore properly *he* **dare**, not *he dares* (§ 181). The past tense now in use is 'I **durst**.' (The older form of the root was *daurs*.) *To dare* is also conjugated like an ordinary Weak Verb.

THINKS.

192. The impersonal **thinks** (in *methinks*) means '**seems**,' and comes from the Anglo-Saxon *thincan*, 'to appear.' The past tense is **methought**. It is not the same as the verb 'I think' (from *thencan*).

193. The Notional and Auxiliary Verb HAVE.

Infinitive Mood.

Indefinite Tense, [To] have. **Perfect Tense,** [To] have had.

Participles.

Imperfect Participle, Having. *Perfect Participle* (passive), Had.
Compound Perfect Participle (active), Having had.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

Singular. 1. [I] have; 2. [Thou] hast; 3. [He] hath *or* has.
Plural. 1. [We] have; 2. [You] have; 3. [They] have.

Present Perfect Tense.

Singular. [I] have had, &c. *Plural.* [We] have had, &c.

* Respecting the form see *must*.

Past Indefinite Tense.

Singular. 1. [I] had; 2. [Thou] hadst; 3. [He] had.
Plural. 2. [We] had; 2. [You] had; 3. [They] had.

Past Perfect Tense.

Singular. [I] had had, &c. *Plural.* [We] had had, &c.

Future Indefinite Tense.

Singular. 1. [I] shall have; 2. [Thou] wilt have; 3. [He] will have.
Plural. 1. [We] shall have; 2. [You] will have; 3. [They] will have.

Future Perfect Tense.

Sing. [I] shall have had, &c. *Plural.* [We] shall have had, &c.

Imperative Mood.

Singular. Have [thou]. *Plural.* Have [you *or* ye].

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

(Used after *if, that, lest, unless,* &c.

Singular. 1. [I] have; 2. [Thou] have; 3. [He] have.
Plural. 1. [We] have; 2. [You] have; 3. [They] have.

Present Perfect Tense.

(Used after *if, that, unless,* &c.)

Singular. 1. [I] have had; 2. [Thou] have had; 3. [He] have had.
Plural. 1. [We] have had, &c.

(*a.*) **Past Indefinite Tense.**

(Used mostly after *if, that, unless,* &c.)

The same in form as in the Indicative Mood.

(*b.*) *Secondary or Compound Form.*

(When not preceded by Conjunctions.*)

Sing. 1. [I] should have; 2. [Thou] wouldst have; 3. [He] would have.
Plural. 1. [We] should have; 2. [You] would have; 3. They would have.

(*a.*) **Past Perfect Tense.**

(Used mostly after *if, that, unless,* &c.

The same in form as the Indicative.

(*b.*) *Secondary or Compound Form.*

(When not preceded by Conjunctions.*)

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. [I] should have had.	1. [We] should have had.
2. [Thou] wouldst have had.	2. [You] would have had.
3. [He] would have had.	3. [They] would have had.

* After *if, though, unless, lest,* &c., the second and third persons are formed by *shouldst* and *should.*

When *have* is followed by a noun that implies some continuous act, as 'to have a game,' 'to have one's dinner,' &c., it may have also imperfect tenses like an ordinary verb.

Had is a short form for *haved*; *hast* for *havest*, *hath* for *haveth*.

When the verb is used as a mere auxiliary of perfect tenses, the notion of 'possessing' has (now) altogether evaporated.

194. The Notional and Auxiliary Verb BE.

Infinitive Mood.

Indefinite Tense, [To] be. **Perfect Tense,** [To] have been.

Participles.

Imperfect, Being; *Perfect*, Been; *Compound Perfect*, Having been.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

Singular. 1. [I] am; 2. [Thou] art; 3. [He] is.
Plural. 1. [We] are; 2. [You] are; 3. [They] are.

Present Perfect Tense.

Singular. I have been, &c. *Plural.* We have been, &c.

Past Indefinite Tense.

Singular. 1. [I] was; 2. [Thou] wast or wert; 3. [He] was.
Plural. 1. [We] were; 2. [You] were; 3. [They] were.

Past Perfect Tense.

Singular. [I] had been, [Thou] hadst been, &c.
Plural. [We] had been, &c.

Future Indefinite Tense.

Singular. 1. [I] shall be; 2. [Thou] wilt be; 3. [He] will be.
Plural. 1. [We] shall be; 2. [You] will be; 3. [They] will be.

Future Perfect Tense.

Singular. [I] shall have been, [Thou] wilt have been, &c.
Plural. [We] shall have been, [You] will have been, &c.

Imperative Mood.

Singular. Be [thou]. *Plural.* Be [ye *or* you].

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

(After *if*, *that*, *though*, *lest*, &c.)

Singular. 1. [I] be; 2. [Thou] be; 3. [He] be.
Plural. 1. [We] be; 2. [You] be; 3. [They] be.

Present Perfect Tense.

(After *if, that, though, unless,* &c.)

Singular. 1. [I] have been; 2. [Thou] have been; 3. [He] have been.
Plural. 1. [We] have been; 2. [You] have been; 3. [They] have been.

Past Indefinite Tense.

(Used mostly after *if, that, though, unless,* &c.)

Singular. 1. [I] were; 2. [Thou] wert; 3. [He] were.
Plural. 1. [We] were; 2. [You] were; 3. [They] were.

Secondary or Compound Form.

(When not preceded by Conjunctions.*)

Singular. 1. [I] should be; 2. [Thou] wouldst be; 3. [He] would be.
Plural. 1. [We] should be; 2. [You] would be; 3. [They] would be.

Past Perfect Tense.

(Used mostly after *if, that, though, unless,* &c.)

The same in form as the Indicative.

Secondary or Compound Form.

(When not preceded by Conjunctions.*)

Singular. 1. [I] should have been; 2. [Thou] wouldst have been; 3. [He] would have been.
Plural. 1. [We] should have been; 2. [You] would have been; 3. [They] would have been.

195. ANGLO-SAXON FORMS.

Inf.—beón, wesan. **Imp. Part.**—wesende. **Perf. Part.**—(ge)wesen.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

	1	2	3
Sing.	beóm (beó) eom	bist (býst) eart	býð is (ys)
Plural.	beóð sindon (sind) aron	beóð sindon (sind) aron	beóð sindon (sind) aron

Preterite Tense.

	1	2	3
Sing.	wæs	wǽre	wǽs
Plural.	wǽron	wǽron	wǽron

* After *if, though, unless, lest,* &c, the second and third persons are formed by *shouldst* and *should*.

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Tense.

	1	2	3
Sing.	beó	beó	beó
	síe (sí, seó)	síe (sí, seó)	síe (sí, seó)
	wese	wese	wese
Plural.	beón	beón	beón
	síen (sín)	síen (sín)	síen (sín)
	wesen	wesen	wesen

Preterite Tense.

Sing.	wǽre	wǽre	wǽre
Plural.	wǽren	wǽren	wǽren

Imperative.

Sing.	beó	wes
Plural.	beóð	wesað

193. FORMS IN CHAUCER.

Infinitive—ben *or* been. Past P.—ben, been.

Indicative.

Present Tense.

Singular. 1. am; 2. art; 3. beth *or* is.
Plural. ben, arn *or* are.

Preterite Tense.

Singular. 1. was; 2. were; 3. was.
Plural. weren *or* were.

Imperative.

Singular. be. *Plural.* beth.

197. Inspection of the preceding forms will show that the conjugation of this verb is made up from three different roots. (1.) The present tense of the indicative mood is formed from the old Aryan root *as*, which appears in Greek and Latin in the form *es*. The *s* of the root is dropped in *am* = *a(s)m*, and softened to *r* in *art* and *are*.

(2.) The present subjunctive, the imperative, the infinitive, and the participles are formed from the root *be*.

(3.) The past indefinite tense of the indicative and subjunctive is formed from the root *wes* or *was*, *s* being softened to *r* in the plural and in the subjunctive.

In old English *nam* (*ne am*) = *am not*, *nart* (*ne art*) = *art not*, &c.

198. The Notional and Auxiliary Verb DO.

Infinitive Mood.

Indefinite, [To] do; *Imperfect*, [To] be doing; *Perfect*, [To] have d

Participles.

Imperfect, Doing; *Perfect*, Done; *Compound Perfect*, Having done.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

Singular. 1. [I] do; 2. [Thou] dost; 3. [He] doth or does.
Plural. 1. [We] do; 2. [You] do; 3. [They] do.

Past Indefinite Tense.

Singular. 1. [I] did; 2. [Thou] didst; 3. [He] did.
Plural. 1. [We] did; 2. [You] did; 3. [They] did.

199. *Do* (when used as a notional verb) is not defective in Voice, Mood, or Tense. *Did* is a reduplicated Preterite. The forms *doest* and *doeth* do not belong to the verb when it is a mere auxiliary.

200. Complete Conjugation of a Verb.

SMITE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

Infinitive Mood.

Indefinite, [To] smite; *Imperfect*, [To] be smiting.
Perfect, [To] have smitten.
Perfect of Continued Action, [To] have been smiting.

Participles.

Imperfect, Smiting; *Perfect*, Having smitten.
Perfect of Continued Action, Having been smiting.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

Singular. 1. [I] smite; 2. [Thou] smitest; 3. [He] smites.
Plural. 1. [We] smite; 2. [You] smite; 3. [They] smite.

Present Imperfect Tense.

Sing. 1. [I] am smiting; 2. [Thou] art smiting; 3. [He] is smiting.
Plur. 1. [We] are smiting; 2. [You] are smiting; 3. [They] are smiting.

Present Perfect Tense.

Sing. 1. [I] have smitten; 2. [Thou] hast smitten; 3. [He] has smitten.
Plur. 1. [We] have smitten; 2. [You] have smitten; 3. [They] have smitten.

Present Perfect of Continued Action.

Sing. [I] have been smiting, &c. *Plur.* We have been smiting, &c.

Past Indefinite Tense.

Sing. 1. [I] smote; 2. [Thou] smotest; 3. [He] smote.
Plur. 1. [We] smote; 2. [You] smote; 3. [They] smote.

Past Imperfect Tense.

Sing. 1. [I] was smiting; 2. [Thou] wast smiting; 3. [He] was smiting.
Plur. 1. [We] were smiting; 2. [You] were smiting; 3. [They] were smiting.

Past Perfect Tense.

Sing. 1. [I] had smitten; 2. [Thou] hadst smitten; 3 [He] had smitten.
Plur. 1. [We] had smitten; 2. [You] had smitten; 3. [They] had smitten.

Past Perfect of Continued Action.

Sing. [I] had been smiting, &c. *Plur.* [We] had been smiting, &c.

Future Indefinite Tense.

Sing. 1. [I] shall smite; 2. [Thou] wilt smite; 3. [He] will smite.
Plur. 1. [We] shall smite; 2. [You] will smite; 3. [They] will smite.

Future Imperfect Tense.

Sing. I shall be smiting, &c. *Plur.* We shall be smiting, &c.

Future Perfect Tense.

Sing. [I] shall have smitten, &c. *Plur.* [We] shall have smitten, &c.

Future Perfect of Continued Action.

I shall have been smiting, &c.

Imperative Mood.

Singular. Smite [thou]. *Plural.* Smite [you *or* ye].

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

(After *if, that, though, lest,* &c.)

Singular. 1. [I] smite *; 2. [Thou] smite; 3. [He] smite.
Plural. 1. [We] smite; 2. [You] smite; 3. [They] smite.

Present Imperfect Tense.

(After *if, that, though, lest,* &c.)

Sing. 1. [I] be smiting; 2. [Thou] be smiting; 3. [He] be smiting.
Plur. 1. [We] be smiting; 2. [You] be smiting; 3. [They] be smiting.

Present Perfect Tense.

Sing. 1. [I] have smitten; 2. [Thou] have smitten; 3. [He] have smitten.
Plur. 1. [We] have smitten; 2. [You] have smitten; 3. [They] have smitten.

Present Perfect of Continued Action.

I have been smiting, &c.

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* After *that* the present and past indefinite tenses of the subjunctive are expressed by compounds of *may*,—'That I may smite,' 'That I might smite,' &c.

Past Indefinite Tense.

Identical in form with the Indicative.

Secondary or Compound Form.

(When not preceded by Conjunctions.)

Sing. 1. I should smite; 2. Thou wouldst smite; 3. He would smite.
Plur. 1. We should smite; 2. You would smite; 3. They would smite.

(After *if*, *that*, *lest*, &c., the second and third persons are formed with *shouldst* and *should*.)

Past Imperfect Tense.

(Used mostly after *if*, *that*, *though*, &c.)

Sing. 1. [I] were smiting; 2. [Thou] wert smiting; 3. [He] were smiting.
Plur. 1. [We] were smiting; 2. [You] were smiting; 3. [They] were smiting.

Secondary or Conditional Form.

(When not preceded by Conjunctions.)

Sing. 1. [I] should be smiting; 2. [Thou] wouldst be smiting, &c.
Plur. 1. [We] should be smiting; 2. [You] would be smiting, &c.

(After *if*, *that*, *lest*, &c., the second and third persons are formed with *shouldst* and *should*.)

Past Perfect Tense.

(Used mostly after *if*, *though*, *unless*, &c.)

I had smitten, &c. (Like the Indicative.)

Secondary or Conditional Form.

(When not preceded by Conjunctions.)

Sing. 1. [I] should have smitten; 2. [Thou] wouldst have smitten, &c.; 3. [He] would have smitten.

Plur. 1. [We] should have smitten; 2. [You] would have smitten; 3. [They] would have smitten.

(After *if*, *though*, *lest*, &c., the second and third persons are formed with *shouldst* and *should*.)

Past Perfect of Continued Action.

[I] had been smiting, [Thou] hadst been smiting, &c.

Secondary or Conditional Form.

[I] should have been smiting, [Thou] wouldst have been smiting, &c.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Infinitive Mood.

Indefinite. To be smitten.
Perfect. To have been smitten.

Participles.

Indefinite. Being smitten.
Perfect. Smitten, *or* Having been smitten.

Indicative Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

Sing. 1. [I] am smitten ; 2. [Thou] art smitten ; 3. [He] is smitten.
Plur. 1. We are smitten ; 2. You are smitten ; 3. They are smitten.

Present Imperfect Tense.

I am being smitten, Thou art being smitten, &c.

Present Perfect Tense.

Sing. [I] have been smitten, [Thou] hast been smitten, &c.
Plur. [We] have been smitten, &c.

Past Indefinite Tense.

Sing. 1. [I] was smitten ; 2. [Thou] wast smitten ; 3. [He] was smitten.
Plur. 1. [We] were smitten ; 2. [You] were smitten ; 3. [They] were smitten.

Past Imperfect Tense.

Sing. [I] was being smitten, &c. *Plur.* [We] were being smitten, &c.

Past Perfect Tense.

Sing. [I] had been smitten, [Thou] hadst been smitten, &c.
Plur. [We] had been smitten, &c.

Future Indefinite Tense.

Sing. 1. [I] shall be smitten ; 2. [Thou] wilt be smitten ; 3. [He] will be smitten.
Plur. 1. [We] shall be smitten ; 2. [You] will be smitten ; 3. [They] will be smitten.

Future Imperfect Tense.

I shall be being smitten, &c.

Future Perfect Tense.

Sing. 1. I shall have been smitten ; 2. Thou wilt have been smitten ; 3. He will have been smitten.
Plur. 1. [We] shall have been smitten ; 2. [You] will have been smitten ; 3. [They] will have been smitten.

Imperative Mood.

Sing. Be [thou] smitten. *Plur.* Be [ye] smitten.

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Indefinite Tense.

(After *if, that, though,* &c.)

Sing. 1. I be smitten; 2. Thou be smitten; 3. He be smitten.
Plur. 1. We be smitten; 2. You be smitten; 3. They be smitten.

After *that* the present and past indefinite tenses are replaced by compounds of *may*, 'That I may be smitten,' 'That I might be smitten,' &c.

Present Imperfect Tense.

(After *if, that, though, lest,* &c.)

Sing. [I] be being smitten, &c. *Plur.* [We] be being smitten, &c.

Present Perfect Tense.

(After *if, that, though,* &c.)

Sing. 1. [I] have been smitten; 2. [Thou] have been smitten; 3. [He] have been smitten.
Plur. We have been smitten, &c.

Past Indefinite Tense.

(After *if, that, though,* &c.)

Sing. 1. [I] were smitten; 2. [Thou] wert smitten; 3. [He] were smitten.
Plur. [We] were smitten, &c.

Secondary or Conditional Form.

(When not preceded by Conjunctions.)

Sing. 1. [I] should be smitten; 2. [Thou] wouldst be smitten; 3. [He] would be smitten.
Plur. 1. [We] should be smitten; 2. [You] would be smitten; 3. [They] would be smitten.

After Conjunctions the second and third persons are formed with *shouldst* and *should*.

Past Imperfect Tense.

(After *if, that, though,* &c.)

Sing. 1. [I] were being smitten; 2. [Thou] wert being smitten; 3. [He] were being smitten.
Plur. [We] were being smitten, &c.

Past Perfect Tense.

Identical in form with the Past Perfect Indicative.

Secondary or Conditional Form.

(When not preceded by Conjunctions.)

Sing. 1. I should have been smitten; 2. Thou wouldst have been smitten; 3. He would have been smitten.
Plur. 1. We should have been smitten; 2. You would have been smitten; 3. They would have been smitten.

After Conjunctions the second and third persons are formed with *shouldst* and *should*

ADVERB.

201. Definition.—Adverbs are words which denote the conditions which modify or limit an action or attribute. This is what is meant by saying that **an adverb is a word which modifies a verb, adjective, or other adverb,** as "He writes *badly*"; "The book is *too* long."

202. An adverb *adds something* to the meaning of a verb or adjective, but does not *alter* the meaning of the word itself. 'Writes badly,' means all that 'writes' means, and 'badly' besides. But this word 'badly' restricts the application of the verb 'writes' to a certain class of the actions described by it. Therefore we may also have the

Definition.—An Adverb is a word which adds to the meaning, and limits the application, of a verb, adjective, or other adverb.

CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBS.

203. Adverbs may be classified in two ways, (1) according to their syntactical force, (2) according to their meaning.

204. As regards their syntactical force adverbs are of two kinds:—1. **Simple Adverbs**; 2. **Conjunctive Adverbs.**

A *simple* adverb is one which does nothing more than modify the word with which it is used, as, "We arrived *yesterday*"; "He is coming *hither*."

A *conjunctive* adverb is one which not only modifies some verb, adjective, or other adverb in its own clause, but connects the clause in which it occurs with the rest of the sentence; as *when* ("Come when you are ready"); *whither* ("Whither I go, ye cannot come").

Here *when* modifies the verb *are*, and *whither* modifies *go*.

205. Connective *Adverbs* must be carefully distinguished from *conjunctions*. The latter do not modify any verb, adjective or adverb in the clause which they introduce.

206. The following words are **conjunctive adverbs.** *When, where,*

*whither, whence, why, wherein, whereby, wherefore, whereon, whereat whereout, whereafter, wherever, as.**

207. Both simple and connective adverbs may be classified according to their meaning, as

1. **Adverbs of Time**: *Now, then, after, before, presently, immediately when, as,* "*As* I was returning, I met him"), &c.

2. **Adverbs of Place and Arrangement**: *Here, there, thence, where, whither, whence, wherein, whereat, in, out, up, down, within, without, firstly, secondly,* &c.

3. **Adverbs of Repetition**: *Once, twice,* &c.

4. **Adverbs of Manner**: *Well, ill, badly, how, however, so, as.*

To this class belong the numerous adverbs formed from adjectives by the suffix **ly**, as *rightly, badly,* &c.

5. **Adverbs of Quantity or Degree**: *Very, nearly, almost, quite, much, more, most, little, less, least, all, half, any, the* ("*the* more *the* better," &c., see § 107). These are only a particular kind of Adverbs of Manner.

6. **Adverbs of Affirmation and Negation**: *Not, no, nay, aye, yea.*

7. **Adverbs of Cause and Consequence**: *Therefore, wherefore, why, consequently.*

FORMATION OF ADVERBS.

208. Adverbs are for the most part formed by inflexion, derivation, or composition, from nouns, adjectives and pronouns.

209. Adverbs derived from Nouns.

Needs (= *of necessity*), *straightways, noways,* and some others are old genitive cases of nouns. Adverbs of this sort were once more common.

Many adverbs are made up of a noun (originally in the accusative case) and a qualifying adjective, which have hardened into compounds. Such are

Sometimes, always, otherwise, meantime, midway, yesterday.

Many adverbs are compounds of **on** (weakened to **a**) and a noun,† a *afoot* (= on foot), *abed, asleep, ahead, aloft* (*on lyfte* = 'in the air'), &c

In a similar way we get *indeed, belimes* (*i.e., by-times*), *besides, forsooth.*

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* *As* is also a simple or demonstrative adverb. It is a strengthened form of *so.* 'As' = 'also' = 'ealswa' (A.S.).

† These must not be confounded with French compounds of *à* (= *ad*), such as *apart, apace, afront, apiece.*

210. Adverbs derived from Adjectives.

The common adverbial suffix in Anglo-Saxon was **-e**, the omission of which reduced many adverbs to the same form as the adjectives from which they were derived. In Anglo-Saxon there was a numerous class of adjectives ending in **-lic**, the adverbs from which ended in **lice** (= *like* = *ly*). As the adverbial suffix *-e* fell into disuse, the suffix **lice** (= **ly**) came to be treated as an ordinary adverbial suffix.

Pronominal Adverbs.

211. These are formed from pronominal roots.

(1.) By the suffix *-re*, marking *place;—here, there, where.*

(2.) By the suffix *ther;—hither, thither, whither.*

(3.) By the suffix *-n* (A.S. *-ne*, the accusative masculine suffix): *then* or *than, when.*

(4.) By the compound suffix *-nce*, of which *-ce* (= *es*) is the genitive suffix:—*hence, thence, whence.*

(5.) By the Anglo-Saxon *instrumental* inflexion: *the* (= þy) before comparatives, as in "*The* sooner *the* better," *why* = *hwi* or *hwy*, and *how* = *hwu.*

212. Many adverbs are identical in form with prepositions, as *by* ('he rode by'), *on* ('come on'), *off* ('be off'). *From*, as an adverb, survives in *to and fro*. The adverbial use of the words is the older of the two.

213. Adverbs of Negation.

The old English negative was **ne**, put before the verb, while **not** is put after it, when the verb is finite. *Not* is a shortened form of *nought* or *naught* (*i.e., ne-â-wiht* = *n-ever a thing*), and consequently is a strengthened negative, meaning 'in no degree,' or 'in no respect.'

No and *nay* are only varieties of *nâ* = *never*. *No* is now used before comparative adverbs and adjectives, as *no further, no bigger*, and as the absolute negative, as "Did you speak? No." The affirmative particle *ay* or *aye* is the same as the Anglo-Saxon *â* = *ever.* (*For aye* = *for ever.*) *Yes* (A.S. *gese*) is a compound of *yea* or *ye* and the old subjunctive *si* or *sie* 'be it.'

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

214. Some adverbs admit of degrees of comparison.

The comparative degree of an adverb is that form of it which indicates that of two actions or qualities which are compared together, one surpasses the other with respect to some condition of manner or degree by which they are both marked, but in

different degrees. Thus, "John reads *ill*, but Thomas reads *worse*;" "I was but *little* prepared, but he was *less* prepared."

The superlative degree of an adverb is that form of it which indicates that out of several actions or qualities which are compared together, one surpasses all the rest with respect to some condition of manner or degree by which they are all marked, but in different degrees; as, "Of all these boys, William writes *best*;" "John was less cautious than I, but Thomas was the *least* cautious of the three."

215. The suffixes for comparison are now *-er* and *-est*. In modern English adverbs in *-er* and *-est* are seldom formed except from those adverbs which are the same in form as the corresponding adjectives, as *hard, harder, hardest; long, longer, longest*, &c. The usual mode of indicating comparison is to prefix the adverbs *more* and *most*, as *wisely, more wisely, most wisely*.

216. The following forms should be noticed:—

Positive.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
well	better	best
evil (*contr.* ill)	worse	worst
much	more	most
nigh *or* near	nearer	next
forth	further	furthest
far	farther	farthest
———	ere	erst
late	later	last
[*adj.* rathe*]	rather	———

PREPOSITION.

217. A Preposition† is a word which may be placed before a noun or a pronoun, to denote some relation in which a thing, or some action or attribute of a thing, stands to something else. In "I saw a cloud in the sky," *in* is a preposition, and marks the relation (of place) in which the *cloud* stands to the *sky*. In "Tom peeped through the keyhole," *through* denotes the relation (of movement from one side to the other) of the *act of peeping*

* "The rathe (early) primrose." (*Milton, Lyc.*)

† The word *preposition* merely implies 'placed before' (Latin *prae* = *before*, *positus* = *placed*). Originally the name had reference to the position of these words not in Syntax, but in Composition.

to the *keyhole*. In "He is fond of music," *of* denotes the relation of the attribute *fond* to *music*. The noun or pronoun which follows a preposition is in the objective case, and is said to be governed by the preposition.

218. Things and their actions and attributes can only bear relations to other *things*. Therefore a preposition can only be placed before a word that stands for a *thing*, that is, a *substantive*. It connects the noun or pronoun which follows it with a preceding substantive, verb, or adjective.

CLASSIFICATION OF PREPOSITIONS.

219. Prepositions may be arranged in the following classes :—

(1.) **Simple Prepositions.**

at	forth	of *or* off	till
by	from	on	to
for	in	through	up
			with

(2.) **Prepositions derived from Adverbs.**

a. **By a comparative suffix.**

after over under

b. **By prefixing a preposition * to an adverb.**

abaft (A.S. á-be-æftan)
above (A.S. á-be-úfan)
about (A.S. á-be-útan)
afore (A.S. on-foran *or* ætforan)
before (A.S. bi-foran)
behind (A.S. be-hindan)
beneath (A.S. be-neoðan)
beyond (A.S. be-geondan)
but† (A.S. be-útan)
throughout
underneath (A.S under-neoan)
within (A.S. wið-innan)
without (A.S. wið-útan)

(3.) **Prepositions formed by prefixing a preposition to a noun or an adjective used substantively.**

aboard (= on board)
across (from Fr. *croix*)
adown‡ *or* down (A.S. of dúne)
against§ (A.S. on-gegn, ongeán)
along (A.S. andlang ‖)
amid *or* amidst (A.S. on middum)
among *or* amongst (A.S. on-gemang¶)
anent (A.S. on-efen *or* on-emn = 'on a level,' 'over-against')
around *or* round
aslant
astride
athwart (A.S. on þweorh *crooked*)
below
beside *or* besides (= by side)
between (= 'by two')
inside
outside, &c.

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* The prepositions chiefly used are *on* (weakened to *a*), *by* (weakened to *be*) and *with*.

† This old preposition is often wrongly taken for the conjunction *but*. It means literally 'on the outside of,' and thence 'without' *or* 'except.' Thus "Bútan nettum huntian ic mæg" = 'I can hunt without nets' (*Coll.*)

‡ Literally, 'off the hill.' Dún = hill.

§ In *against*, *amidst*, and *amongst* the *s* is the adverbial genitive suffix (§ 209). The *t* is an offgrowth of the *s*. *Again* is the older form.

‖ From the old Anglo-Saxon preposition *and* = *opposite*, or *in presence of*, which we have in *answer*.

¶ *Gemang* in A.S. means an assemblage or multitude.

(4.) **Prepositions formed by prefixing an adverbial particle a preposition :—**

into	until	upon	without
onto	unto	within	throughout

Relations indicated by Prepositions.

220. The principal **relations** which prepositions indicate a those of **place, time,** and **causality.**

Prepositions were first used to express relation in *space*, then the were applied to relation in *time*, and lastly were used metaphoricall to mark relations of *causality* or *modality*.

CONJUNCTION.

221. Conjunctions are so called because they **join** words anc sentences **together** (Lat. *con* = 'together,' *jungo* = 'I join') but a word is not necessarily a conjunction because it does this *Who, which,* and *that* are connective words which are pronouns *When, where, as,* &c., are connective words which are adverbs

Definition.—Conjunctions are connective words, which have neither a pronominal nor an adverbial signification.

CLASSIFICATION OF CONJUNCTIONS.

222. Conjunctions are of two kinds.

1. **Co-ordinative Conjunctions.**
2. **Subordinative Conjunctions.**

223. Co-ordinative Conjunctions are those which unite either co-ordinate clauses (*i.e.*, clauses of which neither is dependent on the other, or enters into its construction), or words which stand in the same relation to some other word in the sentence. They may be subdivided according to their meaning into

1. **Simple Conjunctions** :—*and, both.*
2. **The Adversative or exceptive conjunction** :—*but.*
3. **Alternative Conjunctions** *either—or; neither—nor.*

Both is the numeral adjective used as a conjunction.

Either is the distributive pronoun used as a conjunction. **Or** is an abbreviation of it. With the negative *ne* these give *neither—nor*.

But has ousted the older conjunction *ac*. *But* (A.S. *bútan*) was first a preposition meaning *without* or *except*, as in 'All but one' (A.S. *ealle bútan ánum*).

224. Subordinative Conjunctions are those which unite sentences of which one is in a relation of dependence upon the other, that is to say, *enters into its construction with the force of a substantive, an adjective, or an adverb.*

225. Subordinative Conjunctions may be subdivided into

1. **The Simple Conjunction of Subordination**:—*that.*
2. **Temporal Conjunctions,** or conjunctions that express relations of Time:—*after, before, ere, till, while, since, now.*
3. **Causal Conjunctions,** or such as relate to purpose or consequence:—*because, since, for, lest, that.*
4. **Hypothetical Conjunctions**:—*if, an, unless, except,* &c.
5. **Concessive Conjunctions**:—*though, although, albeit.*
6. **Alternative Conjunctions**:—*whether—or.*
7. **The Conjunction of Comparison**:—*than.*

226. That was originally simply the neuter demonstrative pronoun used as the representative of a sentence to show its grammatical relation to some other sentence. Thus "I know that he said so" is virtually "He said so. I know *that*."

INTERJECTION.

227. Interjections are words which are used to express some emotion of the mind, but do not enter into the construction of sentences; as, *Oh! O! Ah! Ha! Alas! Fie! Pshaw! Hurrah!*

In written language interjections are usually followed by what is called a mark of admiration (!).

COMPOSITION AND DERIVATION.

228. Words may be divided into two classes—*primary* words, and *secondary* or *derivative* words.

A word is a *primary* word when it does not admit of being resolved into simpler elements; as *man, horse, run.*

Secondary words are formed partly by *Composition*, partly by *Derivation.*

COMPOSITION.

229. A word is a *compound* word when it is made up of two or more parts, each of which is a significant word by itself; as *apple-tree, tea-spoon, spend-thrift.*

A.—COMPOUND NOUNS.

230. Compound Nouns exhibit the following combinations :—

1. A noun preceded by a noun, as *haystack, cornfield, oaktree, teaspoon.* The first noun may be a defining genitive, as *swordsman.*

2. A noun preceded and modified by an adjective, as *roundhead, blackbird, quicksilver, Northampton, midday, midriff* (A.S. *hrif* = bowels).

3. A noun preceded by a verb of which it is the object, as *stopgap, pickpocket, makeweight, turncock, wagtail, spitfire.*

4. A noun denoting an agent preceded by what would be the object of the corresponding verb, as *man-slayer, peace-maker.*

5. A gerund preceded by a governed noun, as *wire-pulling.*

6. A verb preceded by a noun, as *godsend* (very rare).

7. A noun preceded by an adverb, which modifies (adverbially) the noun, when that denotes an action, as *forethought, neighbour* (A.S. *neah-búr* = 'one who dwells near'), *off-shoot, aftertaste, by-path.*

8. A noun preceded and governed by a preposition, as *forenoon.*

9. A verb preceded or followed by an adverb which modifies it, as *inlet, welfare, onset, go-between, standstill, income.*

B.—COMPOUND ADJECTIVES.

231.—Compound Adjectives exhibit the following combinations :—

1. An adjective preceded by a noun, which qualifies it adverbially as *sky-blue, fire-new, pitch-dark, blood-red, ankle-deep, breast-high, head-strong, childlike, hopeful.*

2. The adjective in these compounds is often a participle, as in *seafaring, bed-ridden, heart-broken, tempest tossed, sea-girt,* &c.

3. An imperfect participle preceded by its object, as *tale-bearing, heart-rending, time-serving,* &c.

4. An adjective or participle preceded by a simple adverb, as *upright, downright, under-done, out-spoken, inborn, almighty.*

5. A noun preceded by an adjective, as *barefoot, two-fold, manifold,* a *three-bottle* man, a *twopenny* cake, a *three-foot* rule.

C.—COMPOUND PRONOUNS.

232. See the section on Pronouns.

D.—COMPOUND VERBS.

233. These present the following combinations :—

1. A verb preceded by a separable adverb, as *overdo, understand.*
2. A verb preceded by its object, as *back-bite, brow-beat.*
3. A verb preceded by its complement, as *white-wash, rough-hew.*
4. A verb followed by an adverb, as *don=do* or *put on, doff=do* or *put off, dout* or *douse=do out, dup=do up.* (Comp. Germ. *aufthun.*)

DERIVATION.

234. *Derivation*, in the wider sense of the term, includes all processes by which words are formed from roots, or from other words. In practice, however, *derivation* excludes *composition*, which is the putting together of words both or all of which retain an independent existence, and *inflexion*, which is the name given to those changes in certain classes of words by which the varieties of their *grammatical* relations are indicated. (See § 22.)

235. The addition of a syllable for inflexion or derivation often causes the weakening of the vowel sound of a preceding syllable. Compare *nā́tion* with *nā́tional; vain* with *vanity; child* with *children; cock* with *chicken; long* with *linger; old* with *elder; broad* with *breadth.* A weakened vowel sound marks a derived word.

DERIVATION BY MEANS OF TEUTONIC PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES.

DERIVED NOUNS.

236. Noun Prefixes of Teutonic Origin.

1. **un**; as in *unrest, undress.*
2. **mis**; as in *misdeed, mishap, mistrust, misconduct.* This prefix (connected with the verb **miss**, and the Old English **mys**=*evil*) implies error or fault in the action referred to. In many words of Romance origin, as *mischance*, *mis* = Old French *mes*, from Lat. *minus.*

Noun Suffixes of Teutonic Origin.

237. **1. Suffixes denoting a person or the doer of an action.**

-er or **-ar**,—*singer, baker, beggar, liar.*

-ster (originally denoting female agent),—*spinster, maltster, tapst*

-ter, -ther, -der,—*father, daughter, spider* (= *spinder* or *spinner*).

-nd (old imperfect participle), *fiend, friend* (from Gothic *fijan* 'to hate' and *frijon* 'to love').

238. 2. Suffixes denoting an instrument.

-el, -le,—*shovel, girdle, shuttle.*

-ter, -der,—*ladder, rudder.*

239. 3. Suffixes forming Abstract Nouns.

-dom (connected with *deem* and *doom*, implying condition or sphere of action),—*kingdom, earldom, thraldom, martyrdom, Christendom.*

-hood, -head (A.S. = person, state, condition),—*manhood, priesthood, childhood, godhead.*

-red (A.S. *ræd* = counsel, power, state),—*hatred, kindred.*

-ship, -scape, -skip (denoting *shape, fashion*),—*friendship, hardship, worship* (i.e. *worth-ship*), *landscape* or *landskip.*

-ing,—*hunting, blessing, flooring, clothing.*

-ness,—*redness, goodness, witness.*

-th, -t, -(s)t, -d, *growth, health, death* (die), *gift, might* (may), *theft, flight, rift* (rive), *mirth* (merry), *trust, flood.*

240. 4. Suffixes forming Diminutives.

-en;—*maiden, kitten, chicken* (cock).

-el, -le—*satchel* (sack), *paddle* (= spaddle, from spade).

-rel; *cockerel, mongrel, gangrel, wastrel.*

-kin; *lambkin, pipkin, mannikin, Perkin* (= *Peterkin*), *Tomkin, Wilkin,* &c.

-ling;—*duckling, kidling, darling, suckling, hireling, starveling.*

-ock;—*hillock, bullock, ruddock* (robin red-breast), *pinnock* (tom-tit), *Pollock* (Paul), *Baldock* (Baldwin), &c.

-y, -ie, ey;—*daddy, Annie, Charley* or *Charlie.*

241. 5. Patronymics.

-ing (= son of); *Browning.* Common in A.S., as *Elising* (son of *Elisa* or *Elisha*). -kin, -son, -ock, and the possessive -s are also used in patronymics; *Wilkin, Wilson, Wilkins, Pollock.*

DERIVED ADJECTIVES.

Adjective Prefixes of Teutonic Origin.

242. 1. a, *alive, aweary.* *Athirst* is in A.S. *of-þyrst.*

2. a, a corruption of *ge,—alike* = *gelic.* For *of* in *akin* (= *of kin*).

3. un (negative, not the same as the *un* in verbs); *unwise, untrue,* and before Romance words, as *uncourteous.*

Adjective Suffixes (Teutonic).

243. **-ed**; the common participial suffix. Also added to nouns, as in *ragged, wretched, left-handed*, &c.

-en or **-n** (used also as a participial suffix); *wooden, golden, linen* (from *lin* = *flax*), *heathen* (a dweller on the *heath*), *green, fain*, &c.

-er or **-r**; *bitter, lither, fair.*

-ern (a compound of the two last); *northern, southern*, &c.

-el or **-le** (A.S. **-ol**), *fickle, little, brittle, idle.*

-ard or **-art** (= *hard*, A S. *heard*, gives an intensive force), added to adjectives and verbs, as *dullard, drunkard, laggard, dotard, braggart, blinkard, stinkard, coward* (*codardo* from Lat. *cauda*; properly a dog that runs away with his *tail* between his legs).

-ish, -sh, -ch added to nouns to denote 'belonging to,' 'having the qualities of,' as *swinish, slavish, foolish, Romish, Turkish, Welsh, French*. Comp. Germ. *-sch*. Added to adjectives it naturally gives a diminutive force, as *blackish, dullish*.

-less (A.S. *leas* = *loose, free from, without*). *Heedless, senseless, lawless.*

-ly (a corruption of *like*), added (of course) to nouns. *Godly, heavenly, ghastly* (from *ghost*), *manly.*

-some, added to verbs and adjectives to denote the presence of the quality that they indicate. *Winsome, buxom* (from *bugan* = *to yield*), *tiresome, quarrelsome, wholesome, blithesome, fulsome.*

-th or **d** (originally a superlative suffix), in numerals. *Third, fourth*, &c.

-y = A.S. **-ig**, added usually to nouns to indicate the presence of that for which the noun stands. *Greedy, bloody, needy, thirsty, moody, sorry* (*sore*), *dirty*, &c. Added to verbs, in *sticky, sundry* (*sunder*), *weary.*

-ward, denoting 'becoming' or 'inclining to' from A.S. *weorðan. Northward, froward* (*from*), *toward* (*to*).

244. For **Derived Pronouns**, see §§ 113—129.

DERIVED VERBS.

Verb-Prefixes (Teutonic).

245. **a**, meaning formerly *out, away, off*, now merely an *intensive* particle, prefixed to verbs:—*arise, abide, awake.*

be (= **by**) denotes the application of an action, or of an attributive idea, to an object, and so (*a*) makes intransitive verbs transitive, as *bemoan, bespeak, bestride, befall*, or (*b*) forms transitive verbs out of adjectives or nouns, as *bedim, begrime* (*grim*), *benumb, becloud, befriend, bedew*, or (*c*) strengthens the meaning of transitive verbs as *betake, bestow, bedazzle.*

for (=German *ver*) gives the idea of 'doing out and out,' 'over-doing,' 'doing in a bad or contrary sense.' *To Forgive* is properly 'to make a present of, without exacting a return or penalty.' (Compare Lat. *condonare*,)

mis, denoting *error* or *defect*, as in *misspell, misbelieve, misgive.* Before Romance words, *misadvise, misdirect.*

un (Gothic *and* = *against, back*, German *ent*), implies the reversal of the action indicated by the simple verb :—*unbind, undo, untie.*

Answer (A.S. *andswarian*) has the same prefix; *Unbosom, unkennel, unsex*, &c., are formed directly from nouns.

gain (root of *against*, German *gegen*); *gainsay, gainstrive.*

with ; *withdraw, withstand, withhold.*

to (=Germ. *zer;* not the preposition *to*) ; *to brake* ('broke to pieces' is still found in *Judges* ix. 53).

Verb-Suffixes (Teutonic).

246. **-el** or **-le**, added to the roots of verbs and nouns gives a combined frequentative and diminutive force : *dazzle* (*daze*), *straddle* (*stride*), *shovel* (*shove*), *swaddle* (*swathe*), *dribble* (*drop*), *gamble* (*game*), *waddle* (*wade*), *snivel* (*sniff*), *grapple* (*grab*), from nouns—*kneel* (*knee*), *nestle* (*nest*), *sparkle* (*spark*), *throttle* (*throat*), *nibble* (*nib* or *neb*), *curdle, scribble* (*scribe*).

-er (giving much the same force as the last), *glimmer* (*gleam*), *wander* (*wend*), *fritter* (*fret*), *flitter* and *flutter* (*flit*).

-k (frequentative) ; *hark* (*hear*), *talk* (*tell*).

-en forming causative or factitive verbs from nouns and adjectives ; as *strengthen, lengthen, frighten, fatten, sweeten, slacken.*

-se, forming verbs from adjectives ; *cleanse, rinse* (comp. Germ. *rein*).

Derivatives formed by Modifications of Sound.

247. Verbs are often formed from nouns by a modification or weakening of the vowel sound, or of the final consonant, or of both. Thus *bind* (from *bond*), *sing* (from *song*), *breed* (*brood*), *feed* (*food*), *knit* (*knot*), *drip* (*drop*), *heal* (*whole*), *calve* (*calf*), *halve* (*half*), *breathe* (*breath*), *bathe* (*bath*), *shelve* (*shelf*), *graze* (*grass*), *glaze* (*glass*), *hitch* (*hook*). The same process is seen in Romance words, as *prize* from *price*, *advise* (*advice*), &c. The weakening was occasioned by verbal suffixes, which have since disappeared.

248. Transitive (causative) verbs are often formed by a slight **modification or weakening of the root** vowel from intransitive verbs denoting the act or state which the former produce. Thus *fell* (from *fall*), *set* (from *sit*), *raise* (from *rise*), *lay* (*lie*), *drench* (*drink*), and (*quiver*) *quell* (*quail*, A.S. *cwêlan* 'to die').

249. A **k** or **g** sound at the end of words in old English tends to become softened in modern English. Compare *dike* and *ditch*, *stink* and *stench*, *wring* and *wrench*, *mark* and *march* (= *boundary*), *lurk* and *lurch*, *bank* and *bench*, *stark* and *starch*, *seek* and *beseech*, *bark* and *barge*, *bake* and *batch*, *stick* and *stitch*, *wake* and *watch*, *tweak* and *twitch*. Also *sc* tends to become *sh*, as A.S. *scacan* = *shake*, A.S. *scādu* = *shadow*, A.S. *sceal* = *shall*, A.S. *sceāp* = *sheep*, A.S. *scapan* = *shape*, A.S. *scip* = *ship*, &c., *scuffle* = *shuffle*, *screech* = *shriek*, *scabby* = *shabby*, *skirt* = *shirt*, &c.

250. Other collateral forms involve the **retention or omission of an initial s.** Compare *smash mash*, *splash plash*, *smelt melt*, *squash quash*, *squench quench*, *swag wag*.

251. For **Derived Adverbs, Prepositions, and Conjunctions** see §§ 209—226.

DERIVED WORDS CONTAINING PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES OF LATIN ORIGIN.

252. Prefixes of Latin Origin.

a, ab, abs (from *or* away). *Avert, abduction, abstract.* The *d* in *advance* is an error; Fr. *avancer* from *ab* and *ante*.

ad (to) found also in the forms *ac, al, an, ap, as, at, a*, according to the consonant that follows it. *Adore, accede, allude, announce, appear, assent, attend, aspire.*

amb- or **am-** (round). *Amputate, ambiguous.*

ante or **anti** (before). *Antediluvian, antecessor* (or *ancestor*), *anticipate.*

circum or **circu** (round). *Circumlocution, circuit.*

con (with), also **com-, col-, cor-, co-**, according to the following consonant. *Conduct, compact, collision, correct, coheir.*

contra, contro (against), often Anglicized into *counter*. *Contravene, controvert, counteract, country-dance* = *contre-danse.*

de (down, from). *Denote, describe, descend.*

dis (in two, apart), also **dif-, di-, de-**. *Dissent, differ, dilute, deluge* (= *diluvium*), *depart, demi-*=*dimidium*. Naturalized and used as a negative before Teutonic words; *disband, disbelieve, distrust.*

ex (out of), **ec-, ef-, e-**. *Extrude, efface, educe.* Disguised in *astonish* (*étonner* = *extonare*), *afraid* (*effrayer*), *scourge* (*ex-corrigere*), &c.

extra (*beyond*). *Extravagant, extraneous, stranger.*

in (in, into), modified to **il-, im-, ir-, en-, em-**. *Induce, illusion, impel, irruption, endure, embrace.* Naturalized and used before Teutonic words, *embody, embolden, endear.* Disguised in *anoint* (*in-unctus*).

in (negative). *Insecure, improper, illegitimate, irrational.*

inter, intro (among, within). *Interdict, introduce.*

mis- (Old Fr. *mes* = Lat. **minus**); *mischance* (comp. Fr. *méchant*), *mischief.*

ob, obs (against), **oc-, of-, op-.** *Oblige, occur, offend, oppose.*

per (through), **pel-.** *Permit, pellucid.* Disguised in *pardon* (*per-donare*), *pilgrim* (Ital. *pellegrino* = *peregrinus*).

post (after). *Postpone.*

prae or **pre** (before). *Praelection, preface.* Disguised in *provost* (= *prae-positus*).

praeter, preter (past). *Preterite, preternatural.*

pro (forth, before), **pol, por-, pur-.** *Promote, pollute, portray, purchase* (*pro-captiare*), *purpose, purveyor.*

re or **red** (back, again). *Redaction, redound, reduce.* Used before Teutonic words in *reset, reopen,* &c.

retro (backwards). Retrograde. *Rear* in *rearward.*

se or **sed** (apart). *Seduce, sed-ition.*

sub or **subs** (under), **suc-, suf-, sur-, sus-.** *Subdue, succeed, suffuse, surrogate, suspend.* Disguised in *sojourn* (*sub diurno*). Prefixed to Teutonic words in *sublet,* &c.

subter (beneath). *Subterfuge.*

super (above), **sur.** *Superscribe, surface* (= *superficies*), *surfeit, surcharge.*

trans or **tra** (beyond). *Translate, tradition.*

ultra (beyond). *Ultramontane.*

Suffixes of Latin Origin.*

253. Suffixes Denoting Persons.

(Doers of actions, persons charged with certain functions, or having to do with that for which the primary word stands.)

-tor, -sor, -or, -our, -er (= Latin **ator**);—*doctor, successor, emperor, Saviour, founder, enchanter.*

-ant, -ent (participles);—*attendant, tenant, agent.*

-er, -eer, -ier, -or, -ary (Lat. **-arius**);—*usher* (*ostiarius*), *archer,* (*arcuarius*), *farrier* (*ferrarius*), *brigadier, engineer, chancellor, lapidary.*

-ate (Latin **-atus**);—*legate, advocate.* Weakened to **-ee, -ey** or **-y** in *nominee, committee, attorney, jury* (*juratus*), *deputy* (*deputatus*).

-ese (Lat. **-ensis**);—*burgess, Chinese.*

-ess (**-issa**, fem. suffix);—*countess, traitress.*

* It is difficult to classify these suffixes with any approach to precision, as some have got very much confused, and adjectives and participles often make their appearance as nouns and verbs.

254. Suffixes forming Abstract Nouns.

-ion, -tion, -sion, -son, -som ;—*opinion, action, tension, poison* (*potion-*), *ransom* (*redemption-*), *reason, season,* (*sation-*, 'sowing time').

-ance, -ancy, -ence, ency (Lat. **-antia, -entia**) ;—*distance, infancy, continence, decency.*

-age (**-agium** = **-aticum**) ;—*age, voyage* (*viaticum*), *homage, marriage, tillage, bondage, breakage,* &c.

-ty, -ity (Lat. **-tat, -itat-**) ;—*vanity, cruelty, city* (*civitat-*).

-tude ;—*fortitude, magnitude.*

-our (Lat. **-or**) ;—*labour, ardour, honour.*

-y (Lat. **-ia**) ;—*misery, memory.* Preceded by *t* or *s*, **-tia** or **-sia** = **-cy** or **-ce**, *aristocracy, fancy, grace.*

-ice, -ess (Lat. **-itia** or **-itium**) ; *avarice, justice, duress* (*duritia*), *service, exercise.*

-ure;—*verdure, culture, picture, censure.*

-e (Lat. **-ium**) ;—*exile, homicide.*

-se, -ce, -s (Lat. **-sus**) ;—*case, advice, process.*

255. Suffixes denoting the Means or Instrument.

-ble, -bule ;—*stable, vestibule.*

-cle, -cre ;—*obstacle, vehicle, tabernacle, lucre, sepulchre.*

-ter, -tre ;—*cloister, theatre.*

-me, -m, -n (Lat. **-men**) ;—*volume, charm, leaven, noun.*

-ment ;—*ornament, pigment.* Also forming abstract nouns, as *movement, payment.*

256. Suffixes forming Diminutives.

-ule ;—*globule, pillule.*

-el, -le, -l (Lat. **-ulus, -a, -um** ; **allus, -ellus, -illus**) ; *chapel, libel, table, circle, castle, chancel, sam(p)le* (*exemplum*).

-cle, -cel, -sel (Lat. **culus**, &c., **cellus**, &c.) ;—*carbuncle, article, parcel, damsel.*

-et, -let (Romance, but of obscure origin) ;—*owlet, ballet, pocket, armlet, cutlet, streamlet.*

257. Suffixes forming Augmentatives.

-oon, -one, -on ;—*balloon, trombone, million, flagon.*

258. Suffixes having a Collective or Generic Sense.

-ery, -ry, -er (Lat. **-aria** *or* **-eria**) ; *nunnery, carpentry, chivalry, cavalry, river* (*riparia*), *gutter* (channel for *guttae*, 'drops').

-ter, -ther, -der,—*father, daughter, spider* (= *spinder* or *spinner*).

-nd (old imperfect participle), *fiend, friend* (from Gothic *fijan* 'to hate' and *frijon* 'to love').

238. 2. Suffixes denoting an instrument.

-el, -le,—*shovel, girdle, shuttle.*

-ter, -der,—*ladder, rudder.*

239. 3. Suffixes forming Abstract Nouns.

-dom (connected with *deem* and *doom*, implying condition or sphere of action),—*kingdom, earldom, thraldom, martyrdom, Christendom.*

-hood, -head (A.S. = person, state, condition),—*manhood, priesthood, childhood, godhead.*

-red (A.S. *ræd* = counsel, power, state),—*hatred, kindred.*

-ship, -scape, -skip (denoting *shape, fashion*),—*friendship, hardship, worship* (i.e. *worth-ship*), *landscape* or *landskip.*

-ing,—*hunting, blessing, flooring, clothing.*

-ness,—*redness, goodness, witness.*

-th, -t, -(s)t, -d, *growth, health, death* (die), *gift, might* (may), *theft, flight, rift* (rive), *mirth* (merry), *trust, flood.*

240. 4. Suffixes forming Diminutives.

-en;—*maiden, kitten, chicken* (cock).

-el, -le—*satchel* (sack), *paddle* (= spaddle, from spade).

-rel; *cockerel, mongrel, gangrel, wastrel.*

-kin; *lambkin, pipkin, mannikin, Perkin* (= *Peterkin*), *Tomkin, Wilkin,* &c.

-ling;—*duckling, kidling, darling, suckling, hireling, starveling.*

-ock;—*hillock, bullock, ruddock* (robin red-breast), *pinnock* (tom-tit), *Pollock* (Paul), *Baldock* (Baldwin), &c.

-y, -ie, ey;—*daddy, Annie, Charley* or *Charlie.*

241. 5. Patronymics.

-ing (= son of); *Browning.* Common in A.S., as *Elising* (son of *Elisa* or *Elisha*). **-kin, -son, -ock,** and the possessive **-s** are also used in patronymics; *Wilkin, Wilson, Wilkins, Pollock.*

DERIVED ADJECTIVES.

Adjective Prefixes of Teutonic Origin.

242. 1. **a,** *alive, aweary. Athirst* is in A.S. *of-þyrst.*

2. **a,** a corruption of *ge,*—*alike* = *gelic.* For *of* in *akin* (= *of kin*).

3. **un** (negative, not the same as the *un* in verbs); *unwise, untrue,* and before Romance words, as *uncourteous.*

Adjective Suffixes (Teutonic).

243. **-ed**; the common participial suffix. Also added to nouns, as in *ragged, wretched, left-handed*, &c.

-en or **-n** (used also as a participial suffix); *wooden, golden, linen* (from *lin = flax*), *heathen* (a dweller on the *heath*), *green, fain*, &c.

-er or **-r**; *bitter, lither, fair.*

-ern (a compound of the two last); *northern, southern*, &c.

-el or **-le** (A.S. **-ol**), *fickle, little, brittle, idle.*

-ard or **-art** (= *hard*, A.S. *heard*, gives an intensive force), added to adjectives and verbs, as *dullard, drunkard, laggard, dotard, braggart, blinkard, stinkard, coward* (*codardo* from Lat. *cauda*; properly a dog that runs away with his *tail* between his legs).

-ish, -sh, -ch added to nouns to denote 'belonging to,' 'having the qualities of,' as *swinish, slavish, foolish, Romish, Turkish, Welsh, French*. Comp. Germ. *-sch*. Added to adjectives it naturally gives a diminutive force, as *blackish, dullish*.

-less (A.S. *leas* = *loose, free from, without*). *Heedless, senseless, lawless.*

-ly (a corruption of *like*), added (of course) to nouns. *Godly, heavenly, ghastly* (from *ghost*), *manly.*

-some, added to verbs and adjectives to denote the presence of the quality that they indicate. *Winsome, buxom* (from *bugan = to yield*), *tiresome, quarrelsome, wholesome, blithesome, fulsome.*

-th or **d** (originally a superlative suffix), in numerals. *Third, fourth*, &c.

-y = A.S. **-ig**, added usually to nouns to indicate the presence of that for which the noun stands. *Greedy, bloody, needy, thirsty, moody, sorry* (*sore*), *dirty*, &c. Added to verbs, in *sticky, sundry* (*sunder*), *weary.*

-ward, denoting 'becoming' or 'inclining to' from A.S. *weorðan*. *Northward, froward* (*from*), *toward* (*to*).

244. For **Derived Pronouns**, see §§ 113—129.

DERIVED VERBS.

Verb-Prefixes (Teutonic).

245. **a**, meaning formerly *out, away, off*, now merely an *intensive* particle, prefixed to verbs:—*arise, abide, awake.*

be (= **by**) denotes the application of an action, or of an attributive idea, to an object, and so (*a*) makes intransitive verbs transitive, as *bemoan, bespeak, bestride, befall*, or (*b*) forms transitive verbs out of adjectives or nouns, as *bedim, begrime* (*grim*), *benumb, becloud, befriend, bedew*, or (*c*) strengthens the meaning of transitive verbs as *betake, bestow, bedazzle.*

for (=German *ver*) gives the idea of 'doing out and out,' 'over-doing,' 'doing in a bad or contrary sense.' *To Forgive* is properly 'to make a present of, without exacting a return or penalty.' (Compare Lat. *condonare*,)

mis, denoting *error* or *defect*, as in *misspell*, *misbelieve*, *misgive*. Before Romance words, *misadvise*, *misdirect*.

un (Gothic *and* = *against*, *back*, German *ent*), implies the reversal of the action indicated by the simple verb :—*unbind*, *undo*, *untie*.

Answer (A.S. *andswarian*) has the same prefix; *Unbosom*, *unkennel*, *unsex*, &c., are formed directly from nouns.

gain (root of *against*, German *gegen*); *gainsay*, *gainstrive*.

with; *withdraw*, *withstand*, *withhold*.

to (=Germ. *zer*; not the preposition *to*); *to brake* ('broke to pieces' is still found in *Judges* ix. 53).

Verb-Suffixes (Teutonic).

246. **-el** or **-le**, added to the roots of verbs and nouns gives a combined frequentative and diminutive force: *dazzle* (*daze*), *straddle* (*stride*), *shovel* (*shove*), *swaddle* (*swathe*), *dribble* (*drop*), *gamble* (*game*), *waddle* (*wade*), *snivel* (*sniff*), *grapple* (*grab*), from nouns—*kneel* (*knee*), *nestle* (*nest*), *sparkle* (*spark*), *throttle* (*throat*), *nibble* (*nib* or *neb*), *curdle*, *scribble* (*scribe*).

-er (giving much the same force as the last), *glimmer* (*gleam*), *wander* (*wend*), *fritter* (*fret*), *flitter* and *flutter* (*flit*).

-k (frequentative); *hark* (*hear*), *talk* (*tell*).

-en forming causative or factitive verbs from nouns and adjectives; as *strengthen*, *lengthen*, *frighten*, *fatten*, *sweeten*, *slacken*.

-se, forming verbs from adjectives; *cleanse*, *rinse* (comp. Germ. *rein*).

Derivatives formed by Modifications of Sound.

247. Verbs are often formed from nouns by a modification or weakening of the vowel sound, or of the final consonant, or of both. Thus *bind* (from *bond*), *sing* (from *song*), *breed* (*brood*), *feed* (*food*), *knit* (*knot*), *drip* (*drop*), *heal* (*whole*), *calve* (*calf*), *halve* (*half*), *breathe* (*breath*), *bathe* (*bath*), *shelve* (*shelf*), *graze* (*grass*), *glaze* (*glass*), *hitch* (*hook*). The same process is seen in Romance words, as *prize* from *price*, *advise* (*advice*), &c. The weakening was occasioned by verbal suffixes, which have since disappeared.

248. Transitive (causative) verbs are often formed by a slight modification or weakening of the root vowel from intransitive verbs denoting the act or state which the former produce. Thus *fell* (from *fall*), *set* (from *sit*), *raise* (from *rise*), *lay* (*lie*), *drench* (*drink*), *wend* (*wind*), *quell* (*quail*, A.S. *cwēlan* 'to die').

249. A **k** or **g** sound at the end of words in old English tends to become **softened** in modern English. Compare *dike* and *ditch*, *stink* and *stench*, *wring* and *wrench*, *mark* and *march* (= *boundary*), *lurk* and *lurch*, *bank* and *bench*, *stark* and *starch*, *seek* and *beseech*, *bark* and *barge*, *bake* and *batch*, *stick* and *stitch*, *wake* and *watch*, *tweak* and *twitch*. Also *sc* tends to become *sh*, as A.S. *scacan* = *shake*, A.S. *scādu* = *shadow*, A.S. *sceal* = *shall*, A.S. *sceáp* = *sheep*, A.S. *scapan* = *shape*, A.S. *scip* = *ship*, &c., *scuffle* = *shuffle*, *screech* = *shriek*, *scabby* = *shabby*, *skirt* = *shirt*, &c.

250. Other collateral forms involve the **retention or omission of an initial s.** Compare *smash mash*, *splash plash*, *smelt melt*, *squash quash*, *squench quench*, *swag wag*.

251. For **Derived Adverbs, Prepositions, and Conjunctions** see §§ 209—226.

DERIVED WORDS CONTAINING PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES OF LATIN ORIGIN.

252. Prefixes of Latin Origin.

a, ab, abs (from *or* away). *Avert, abduction, abstract.* The *d* in *advance* is an error; Fr. *avancer* from *ab* and *ante*.

ad (to) found also in the forms *ac, al, an, ap, as, at, a,* according to the consonant that follows it. *Adore, accede, allude, announce, appear, assent, attend, aspire.*

amb- or **am-** (round). *Amputate, ambiguous.*

ante or **anti** (before). *Antediluvian, antecessor* (or *ancestor*), *anticipate.*

circum or **circu** (round). *Circumlocution, circuit.*

con (with), also **com-, col-, cor-, co-,** according to the following consonant. *Conduct, compact, collision, correct, coheir.*

contra, contro (against), often Anglicized into *counter. Contravene, controvert, counteract, country-dance* = *contre-danse.*

de (down, from). *Denote, describe, descend.*

dis (in two, apart), also **dif-, di-, de-.** *Dissent, differ, dilute, deluge* (= *diluvium*), *depart, demi-*=*dimidium.* Naturalized and used as a negative before Teutonic words; *disband, disbelieve, distrust.*

ex (out of), **ec-, ef-, e-.** *Extrude, efface, educe.* Disguised in *astonish* (*étonner* = *extonare*), *afraid* (*effrayer*), *scourge* (*ex-corrigere*), &c.

extra (*beyond*). *Extravagant, extraneous, stranger.*

in (in, into), modified to **il-, im-, ir-, en-, em-.** *Induce, illusion, impel, irruption, endure, embrace.* Naturalized and used before Teutonic words, *embody, embolden, endear.* Disguised in *anoint* (*in-unctus*).

in (negative). *Insecure, improper, illegitimate, irrational.*

inter, intro (among, within). *Interdict, introduce.*

mis– (Old Fr. *mes* = Lat. **minus**); *mischance* (comp. Fr. *méchant*), *mischief.*

ob, obs (against), **oc–, of–, op–.** *Oblige, occur, offend, oppose.*

per (through), **pel–.** *Permit, pellucid.* Disguised in *pardon* (*per-donare*), *pilgrim* (Ital. *pellegrino* = *peregrinus*).

post (after). *Postpone.*

prae or **pre** (before). *Praelection, preface.* Disguised in *provost* (= *prae-positus*).

praeter, preter (past). *Preterite, preternatural.*

pro (forth, before), **pol, por–, pur–.** *Promote, pollute, portray, purchase* (*pro-captiare*), *purpose, purveyor.*

re or **red** (back, again). *Redaction, redound, reduce.* Used before Teutonic words in *reset, reopen,* &c.

retro (backwards). Retrograde. *Rear* in *rearward.*

se or **sed** (apart). *Seduce, sed-ition.*

sub or **subs** (under), **suc–, suf–, sur–, sus–.** *Subdue, succeed, suffuse, surrogate, suspend.* Disguised in *sojourn* (*sub diurno*). Prefixed to Teutonic words in *sublet,* &c.

subter (beneath). *Subterfuge.*

super (above), **sur.** *Superscribe, surface* (= *superficies*), *surfeit, surcharge.*

trans or **tra** (beyond). *Translate, tradition.*

ultra (beyond). *Ultramontane.*

Suffixes of Latin Origin.*

253. Suffixes Denoting Persons.

(Doers of actions, persons charged with certain functions, or having to do with that for which the primary word stands.)

–tor, –sor, –or, –our, –er (= Latin **ator**);—*doctor, successor, emperor, Saviour, founder, enchanter.*

–ant, –ent (participles);—*attendant, tenant, agent.*

–er, –eer, –ier, –or, –ary (Lat. **–arius**);—*usher* (*ostiarius*), *archer,* (*arcuarius*), *farrier* (*ferrarius*), *brigadier, engineer, chancellor, lapidary.*

–ate (Latin **–atus**);—*legate, advocate.* Weakened to **–ee, –ey** or **–y** in *nominee, committee, attorney, jury* (*juratus*), *deputy* (*deputatus*).

–ese (Lat. **–ensis**);—*burgess, Chinese.*

–ess (**–issa**, fem. suffix);—*countess, traitress.*

* It is difficult to classify these suffixes with any approach to precision, as some have got very much confused, and adjectives and participles often make their appearance as nouns and verbs.

254. Suffixes forming Abstract Nouns.

-ion, -tion, -sion, -son, -som;—*opinion, action, tension, poison* (*potion-*), *ransom* (*redemption-*), *reason, season,* (*sation-*, 'sowing time').

-ance, -ancy, -ence, ency (Lat. **-antia, -entia**);—*distance, infancy, continence, decency.*

-age (**-agium** = **-aticum**);—*age, voyage* (*viaticum*), *homage, marriage, tillage, bondage, breakage,* &c.

-ty, -ity (Lat. **-tat, -itat-**);—*vanity, cruelty, city* (*civitat-*).

-tude;—*fortitude, magnitude.*

-our (Lat. **-or**);—*labour, ardour, honour.*

-y (Lat. **-ia**);—*misery, memory.* Preceded by *t* or *s*, **-tia** or **-sia** = **-cy** or **-ce**, *aristocracy, fancy, grace.*

-ice, -ess (Lat. **-itia** or **-itium**); *avarice, justice, duress* (*duritia*), *service, exercise.*

-ure;—*verdure, culture, picture, censure.*

-e (Lat. **-ium**);—*exile, homicide.*

-se, -ce, -s (Lat. **-sus**);—*case, advice, process.*

255. Suffixes denoting the Means or Instrument.

-ble, -bule;—*stable, vestibule.*

-cle, -cre;—*obstacle, vehicle, tabernacle, lucre, sepulchre.*

-ter, -tre;—*cloister, theatre.*

-me, -m, -n (Lat. **-men**);—*volume, charm, leaven, noun.*

-ment;—*ornament, pigment.* Also forming abstract nouns, as *movement, payment.*

256. Suffixes forming Diminutives.

-ule;—*globule, pillule.*

-el, -le, -l (Lat. **-ulus, -a, -um**; **allus, -ellus, -illus**); *chapel, libel, table, circle, castle, chancel, sam(p)le* (*exemplum*).

-cle, -cel, -sel (Lat. **culus,** &c., **cellus,** &c.);—*carbuncle, article, parcel, damsel.*

-et, -let (Romance, but of obscure origin);—*owlet, ballet, pocket, armlet, cutlet, streamlet.*

257. Suffixes forming Augmentatives.

-oon, -one, -on;—*balloon, trombone, million, flagon.*

258. Suffixes having a Collective or Generic Sense.

-ery, -ry, -er (Lat. **-aria** *or* **-eria**); *nunnery, carpentry, chivalry, cavalry, river* (*riparia*), *gutter* (channel for *guttae*, 'drops').

259. Suffixes forming Adjectives.

(Many of these adjectives have become substantives in English.)

al;—*legal, regal, general, comical* (passing into **-el** in *channel—canal*), *hotel, jewel*, or **-le** in *cattle* (*capitalia*).

-an, -ane, -ain, -en, -on (Lat. **anus**);—*pagan, mundane, certain, mizzen* (*medianus*), *surgeon, sexton.*

-ain, -aign, -eign, -ange (Lat. **-aneus**);—*mountain, champaign, foreign* (*foraneus*), *strange* (*extraneus*).

-ar;—*regular, singular.*

-ary, -arious (Lat. **-arius**);—*necessary, gregarious.* Nouns—*salary, granary*, &c.

-ian;—*Christian.*

-ine, -im;—*feminine, feline, divine, pilgrim* (Ital. *pellegrino*, from *peregrinus*).

-ant, -ent (participles);—*volant, fluent, patent.*

-ate, -ete, -eet, -ite, -ute, -te, -t (from Latin participles and adjectives);—*innate, concrete, discreet, erudite, hirsute, statute, polite, chaste, honest.* These adjective formations often become nouns, as *mandate, minute, fact, effect*, &c.

-ile, -il, -eel, -le, -el (Lat. **-ĭlis** and **-īlis**);—*fragile, senile, civil, frail, genteel, gentle, able, kennel* (*canile*).

-able, -ible, -ble;—*culpable, edible, feeble* (*flebilis*), old French *floible* (compare German *wenig* from *weinen*), *teachable.*

-ic, -ique;—*civic, public, unique.*

-ous, -ose (full of, abounding in);—*copious, verbose, grandiose, jocose, famous.*

-ous (Lat. **-us**);—*anxious, omnivorous, murderous.*

-acious;—*mendacious, loquacious, vivacious.*

-ious or **-y** (Lat. **-ius**, after *tor* and *sor*);—*censorious, amatory, illusory.*

-id;—*fervid, timid, hurried.*

-ive, -iff (commonly after t and s of the perfect participle);—*captive, caitiff, plaintive, plaintiff, indicative, adoptive, restive.*

-estrial, -estrian (Lat **-estris**);—*terrestrial, equestrian.*

260. Verb Suffixes.

-fy (**-ficare**, forming compounds rather than derivatives);—*terrify.*

-ish (**-esco**, through the French inchoative conjugation in *-ir, -issant*);—*banish, punish*, &c.

261. There are two principal modes in which verbs are formed in English from Latin verbs. One mode is to take simply the crude

form of the infinitive mood or present tense, without any suffix; as *intend, defend, manumit, incline, opine.* The second mode is to turn the perfect participle passive (slightly modified) into a verb, as *create* (from *creatus*), *conduct* (from *conductus*), *credit* (from *creditus*), *expedite* (*expeditus*), *incense* (from *incensus*). When derivatives are formed by both methods, one generally retains one of the meanings of the original verb, the other another. Compare *deduce* and *deduct; conduce* and *conduct; construe* and *construct; revert* and *reverse.*

262. Nouns (or adjectives) and verbs of Latin origin are often the same in form, but are distinguished by the accent, the noun or adjective having the accent on the first syllable, the verb on the second.

Noun.	*Verb.*	*Noun or Adjective.*	*Verb.*
áccent	accént	óbject	objéct
áffix	affíx	próduce	produce
cóllect	collect	fréquent	frequént
cóncert	concért	ábsent	absént

GREEK PREFIXES.

263. The following prefixes are found in words of Greek origin :—

a or **an** (not). *Anarchy.*
amphi (on both sides, *or* round). *Amphibious, amphitheatre.*
ana (up). *Anabasis, anatomy, analogy.*
anti (against). *Antithesis, antipathy.*
apo (from). *Apogee, apology.*
cata (down). *Catalepsy, catastrophe.*
di (two, or in two). *Disyllable, diphthong.*
dia (through, among). *Diameter, diaphanous.*
en or **em** (in *or* on). *Emphasis, enema.*
endo (within). *Endosmose.*
epi (upon). *Epilogue, epitaph.*
eo or **ex** (out of). *Exodus, ecstatic.*
exo (outside). *Exosmose.*
hyper (over). *Hyperbolical.*
hypo (under). *Hypotenuse, hypothesis.*
meta (implying change). *Metamorphosis.*
para (beside). *Parabola, paraphrase.*
peri (round). *Peristyle, perimeter.*
pro (before). *Program.*
pros (to). *Prosody.*
syn (with, together), modified into *sym* or *syl*. *Syndic, syntax, symbol, syllogism, syllable.*
eu (well). *Euphony, eulogy.*

GREEK SUFFIXES.

264. The following suffixes mark words of Greek origin :—

-e : *catastrophe.*
-y (= ια) : *anatomy, monarchy,*
-ad or **-id.** *Iliad, Æneid, Troad.*
-ic, -tic. *Logic, cynic, ethics, arithmetic.*
-ac, *maniac, Syriac.*
-sis, -sy, -se (= -σις): *crisis, emphasis, palsy* (*paralysis*), *hypocrisy, phrensy, eclipse.*
-ma : *diorama, enema.*
-tre, -ter (-τρον) : *centre, meter.*
-st, *iconoclast, sophist, baptist.*
-te, -t (= της) : *apostate, comet, patriot.*
-sm : *sophism, spasm, aneurism.*
-isk : *asterisk, obelisk.*
-ize (in verbs) : *baptize, criticize.* This termination and its derivatives have been imitated in modern formations, as *minimize, theorize, deism, egotism, egotist, annalist, papist.*

CHANGES IN LATIN WORDS PASSING THROUGH FRENCH.

265. An attentive examination of § 253, &c., will show the usual changes that are to be looked for when a Latin word has passed through French into English. The following (amongst others of less difficulty) should be borne in mind :—

1. *b* often vanishes from between vowels. Compare *sudden* and *subitaneus.*

2. *c* or *g* often vanishes when it occurs before a dental or between vowels. Compare *feat* and *factum*, *sure* and *securus*, *pay* and *pacare*, *deny* and *denegare*, *display* and *displicare*, *rule* and *regula*, *seal* and *sigillum*, *allow* and *allocare.*

d or *t* vanishes. Compare *prey* and *praeda*, *ray* and *radius*, *chair* *athedra*, *cue* and *cauda*, *roll* and *rotulus*, *round* and *rotundus*, *n* and *tradition*, and look at *chance*, *obey*, *recreant*, *defy*, *fay*, &c.

nitial *c* becomes *ch*, as in *chief*, *chance*, *chandler*, *chant*, *change.*

The consonantal force of *ll* disappears ; as in *couch* from *collocare*, *uty* from *bellitas*, &c.

b or *p* becomes *v* or *f*, as in *chief* (*caput*), *ravin* (*rapio*), *river* *riparius*), *cover* (*co-operire*), *van* (*ab-ante*).

7. *di* before a vowel becomes soft *g* or *ch* or *j*, as in *siege* (*assedium*), *urney* (*diurnata*), *preach* (*praedicare*), *Jane* (*Diana*).

8. *ti* undergoes a similar change, as in *voyage* (*viaticum*), *age aetaticum*).

9. *bi*, *pi*, *vi*, before a vowel becomes *ge* or *dge*, as in *abridge abbreviare*), *change* (*cambiare*), *plunge* (*plumbicare*), *rage* (*rabies*), *leluge* (*diluvium*), *assuage* (*ad-suavis*), *sage* (*sapio*).

266. A Latin word adopted in old English or brought in through French has sometimes been re-introduced at a later period directly from the Latin. In that case the older word shows a more mutilated form than the later. Compare *bishop* and *episcopal*; *minster* and *monastery*; *priest* and *presbyter*; *pistol* and *epistle*; *balm* and *balsam*; *sure* and *secure*.

Sometimes the older form has kept its ground with a different shade of meaning. Compare *penance* and *penitence*; *blame* and *blasphemy*; *chalice* and *calix*; *forge* and *fabric*; *countenance* and *continence*; *feat* and *fact*; *defeat* and *defect*; *poor* and *pauper*; *ray* and *radius*; *treason* and *tradition*; *frail* and *fragile*; *loyal* and *legal*; *couch* and *collocate*.

SYNTAX.

267. The word **syntax** means **arrangement** (Greek *syn*, together, *taxis*, arrangement). The rules of syntax are statements of the ways in which the words of a sentence are related to each other.

268. A **sentence** is a collection of words of such kinds, and arranged in such a manner, as to make some complete sense.

By "making some complete sense" is meant, that *something is said about something*.

269. It is plain, therefore, that every ordinary sentence must consist of two essential parts :—

1. **That which denotes what we speak about.** This is called the **Subject.***
2. **That which is said about that of which we speak.** This is called the **Predicate.**

270. In Logic, the *subject* of a proposition is *the entire description* of that which is spoken of : the *predicate* is *all that is employed* to represent the idea which is connected with the subject. Thus, in "This boy's father gave him a book," the subject is "this boy's father ;" the predicate is "gave him a book." But in grammar, the single noun *father* is called the subject, and *gave* the predicate, the words connected with *father* and *gave* being treated as enlargements or adjuncts of the subject and predicate.

271. Whenever we speak of anything, we make it a separate object of thought. A word, or combination of words, that can stand for anything which we make a separate object of thought is called a **substantive.**

272. It follows that the **subject** of a sentence must be a **substantive.**

273. The **subject** of a sentence therefore may be :—

1. **A Noun.**
2. **A Substantive Pronoun** (see § 95).
3. **An Infinitive Mood** (see § 150).
4. **A Gerund,** or **Verbal Noun** (see § 153).
5. **Any word which is itself made the subject of discourse,** every word being *a name for itself.*
6. **A phrase or quotation ;** a phrase being, to all intents and purposes, *a name for itself.*
7. **A Substantive Clause,** that is, a clause which, in its relation to the rest of the sentence, has the force of a single substantive (§ 318).

* grammatical subject of a sentence (which is a *word*) must not be confounded with *ng* that is spoken about. In 'birds fly,' the predicate 'fly' is *attached* to the (gram-l) subject 'birds,' but *flying* is *predicated* of the *creatures* named by the noun.

274. The essential part of every affirmation is a finite verb (*i.e*, a verb in some one of its *personal* forms).

275. The **subject** and the **verb** are the **cardinal points** of every sentence. All other words in a sentence are attached directly or indirectly to one or other of these two.

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES.

Sentences are of three kinds:—

A. **Simple.** B. **Complex.** C. **Compound.**

276. When a sentence contains only one subject and one finite verb, it is said to be a **simple** sentence.

277. When a sentence contains not only a principal subject and its verb, but also other dependent or subordinate clauses which have subjects and verbs of their own, the sentence is said to be **complex.**

278. When a sentence consists of two or more principal and independent sentences connected by co-ordinative conjunctions, it is said to be **compound.**

279. Sentences may also be arranged as **Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative,** and **Conceptive Sentences.**

The subject of a sentence stands for something that we think of; the predicate denotes some fact or idea which may be connected with that thing. But this union may be viewed in more ways than one.

1. When it is our intention to declare that the connexion between what the subject stands for and what the predicate stands for, *does* exist, the sentence is **declarative**;* as, "Thomas left the room."

2. When it is our wish to know whether the connexion referred to subsists, the sentence is **interrogative**; as, "Did Thomas leave the room?"

3. When we express our *will* or *wish* that the connexion between what the subject stands for and what the predicate

* A *negative*, if there is one, is taken as part of the predicate.

denotes, should subsist, the sentence that results is called an **imperative** or **optative** sentence; as, "Thomas, leave [thou] the room," "May you speedily recover."

4. When we merely *think* of the connexion as subsisting without declaring or willing it, we get a **conceptive** sentence.

230. In all the above-named kinds of sentences, the *grammatical* connexion between the subject and the verb is the same.

RELATION OF WORDS TO ONE ANOTHER.

231. The modes in which the various words and groups of words in a sentence are related to each other may be classed as follows:—

1. **The Predicative Relation.**
2. **The Attributive Relation.**
3. **The Objective Relation.**
4. **The Adverbial Relation.**

THE PREDICATIVE RELATION.

232. The **Predicative Relation** is that in which the predicate of a sentence stands to its subject.

233. In the sentence, "The boy ran away," the verb *ran* is in the predicative relation to the subject *boy*. In the sentence, "The ball is round," not only the verb *is*, but the adjective *round*, which belongs to the predicate, is said to be in the predicative relation to the subject *ball*.

THE ATTRIBUTIVE RELATION.

234. When we attach to a noun or pronoun an adjective, or what is equivalent to an adjective, the adjective or its equivalent stands in the **Attributive Relation** to the noun or pronoun, and is said to be an **Attributive Adjunct** to it.

235. Thus in "Wise men sometimes act foolishly," *wise* is in the Attributive Relation to the noun *men*; it *describes* the men. If we say "The men were wise," then *were* and its complement *wise* are both in the Predicative Relation to men.

ATTRIBUTIVE ADJUNCTS.

286. Attributive adjuncts may be of the following kinds :—

1. **An adjective or participle,** either used simply, or accompanied by adjuncts of its own ; as, "*A large* apple, *many* men ;" "the soldier, *covered with wounds*, still fought."

2. **A noun in apposition** to the substantive ; as, "John Smith, *the baker*, said so."

3. **A substantive in the possessive case** ; as, "My **father's** house" ; "**John's** book" ; "The man **whose** house was burnt down," or a substantive preceded by *of*, used as the equivalent of the genitive case in any of its meanings ; as, "One **of us**" ; "The leader **of the party**" ; "The love **of money.**"

4. **A substantive preceded by a preposition,** as, "A horse *for riding*" ; "Water *to drink*" ; "The trees *in the garden.*"

5. **An Adjective Clause** (§ 321) as, "They *that will be rich* fall into temptation" ; "I have found the piece *which I had lost.*"

THE OBJECTIVE RELATION.

287. When a verb, participle, or gerund in the Active Voice denotes an action which is directed towards some object, the word denoting that object stands in the **objective relation** to the verb, participle, or gerund. Thus, in "The dog bites the boy," *boy* is in the objective relation to *bites*. In, "Seeing the tumult, I went out," *tumult* is in the objective relation to *seeing*. In, "Hating one's neighbour is forbidden by the Gospel," *neighbour* is in the objective relation to the gerund *hating*. The **object* of a verb** is the word, phrase, or clause which stands for the object of the action described by the verb when it is in the Active Voice.

288. Besides the **Direct Object,** which denotes the immediate *object* or *product* of an action, transitive verbs are often followed by an **Indirect Object,** which denotes that which is *indirectly affected* by the action spoken of by the verb, as "Give *him* the book." "The tailor made *the boy* a coat."

289. The direct object of an action may be denoted by

1. **A noun** ;—as "He struck the *table.*"

2. **A Substantive Pronoun** ;—as "We admire *him.*"

* Beware of confounding the thing which is the object of an *action*, with the *word* which is the grammatical object of a *verb*.

3. **A Verb in the Infinitive Mood**;—as "I love *to hear* music;" "I durst not *come*."

4. **A Gerund or Verbal Noun**;—as "He hates *learning* lessons."

5. **Any word or phrase used as the name for itself**;—as "Parse *went* in the following sentence."

6. **A quotation**;—as "He said '*Show me that book.*'"

7. **A Substantive Clause**;—as "We heard *that he had arrived*."

THE ADVERBIAL RELATION

290. Any word, phrase, or clause which modifies or limits a verb, adjective, or attributive phrase is in the Adverbial Relation to it (see § 201), or is an Adverbial Adjunct to it.

ADVERBIAL ADJUNCTS.

291. Adverbial Adjuncts may be of the following kinds :—

1. **An adverb** (see § 201); as, "He fought *bravely*." "I set out *yesterday*." "He is *very* industrious."

2. **A substantive preceded by a preposition**; as, "He hopes *for success*." "I heard *of his arrival*." "He killed the bird *with a stone*."

The gerundial infinitive (§ 152) often forms an adverbial adjunct of a verb or adjective; *e.g.*, "He strives *to succeed*." "This food is not fit *to eat*."

3. **A noun qualified by some attributive adjunct**, as, "He arrived *last night*." "We stayed there *all the summer*." "He lives *three miles* away." "Go *that way*."

4. **A substantive in the objective case**, before which some such preposition as *to* or *for* might have been put; as, "Give *me* (*i.e.*, *to me*) the book." "I will sing *you* (*i.e.*, *for you*) a song." A noun thus used with a verb is often called the *indirect object* of the verb.

5. **A substantive (accompanied by some attributive adjunct) in the nominative absolute**; as, "*The sun having risen*, we commenced our journey." "*He being absent*, nothing could be done."

6. **An adverbial clause**, as, "I will come *when I am ready*;" "I would tell you *if I could*."

292. It is perhaps under the head of the *adverbial relation* that we should class such anomalous passive constructions as, "He was taught *his lesson*." "He was paid *his bill*."

293. One kind of Adverbial Adjuncts may often be replaced by another.

Thus for "He suffered *patiently*," we may say "He suffered *with patience*," and *vice versâ*; for "He failed *through carelessness*" we may say "He failed *because he was careless*."

Subject and Predicate.

294. As both the subject and the verb of a sentence are spoken of the same thing, they must agree with each other in those points which they have in common, that is, in *number* and *person*.

295. The **subject** of a finite verb is put in the **nominative case.**

296. A noun in the singular number which denotes a *multitude* (as *crowd, senate, army, flock*) may have its verb in the plural number, when the idea to be kept in view is not the *multitude viewed as one whole*, but the *individuals* of which the multitude is composed. As, "The multitude were of one mind." But we should say, "The army *was led* into the defile," because we then speak of the army *as a whole*.

297. The verb is put in the plural number when it has for its subject two or more nouns in the singular coupled by the conjunction *and*;* as, "John and Thomas were walking together." But when the compound subject is considered as forming one whole, the verb is kept in the singular; as, "The mind and spirit remains invincible;" "Hill and valley rings" (*Par. L.* ii. 495).

298. Every finite verb must have a subject in the nominative case expressed or understood.

299. Every noun, pronoun, or substantive phrase used as a subject ought to have a verb attached to it as predicate.

300. But for the sake of giving greater prominence to the subject, it is sometimes mentioned first, and then repeated by means of a demonstrative pronoun, as "The Lord, He is the God."

301. The subject of a verb is sometimes understood as, "I have a mind presages me such thrift," for '*which* presages,' &c.

* The preposition *with* sometimes answers the same purpose, as "Gedaliah, *who* w brethren and son *were* twelve" (1 *Chron.* xxv. 9).

SUBJECT.

302. The subject of a sentence may be—

1. Simple. **2. Compound.** **3. Complex.**

303. The subject of a sentence is simple when it consists of a single substantive, or a simple infinitive mood; as, "*I* love truth"; "*Men* are mortal"; "*To err* is human."

304. The subject of a sentence is compound when it consists of two or more substantives coupled together by the conjunction *and;* as, "Cæsar and Pompey were rivals." "You and I will travel together."

The conjunctions *either—or, neither—nor,* do not couple substantives together so as to form a compound subject. They imply that *one* of two alternatives is to be taken. Hence if each subject is singular the verb must be singular. Thus, "Either he or his brother was in fault;" "Neither John nor Thomas has arrived."

305. The subject of a sentence is complex when it consists of **an infinitive or gerundive phrase, of a substantive clause,** or of a **quotation;** as, "How to do it is the question"; "That he said so is certain"; "'England expects every man to do his duty,' was Nelson's watchword."

A complex subject is very often anticipated by the pleonastic use of the neuter pronoun **it,** which serves as **a temporary substitute for the real subject,** the grammatical relation of which to the verb it indicates more concisely. Thus:—"*It* is wicked *to tell lies;*" "*It* is certain *that he said so.*"

Enlarged or Expanded Subject.

306. The subject of a sentence may have attached to it any attributive adjunct or any combination of attributive adjuncts (see § 286), as,

"*The* man told a lie" (*Demonst. Adj.*).

"*Good* men love virtue" (*Adj. of Quality*).

"Edward *the Black Prince* did not succeed his father" (*Noun in Apposition*).

"*John's new* coat, *which he was wearing for the first time,* was torn" (1. *Noun in Poss. Case,* 2. *Adj. of Quality,* 3. *Adjective Clause*).

If the subject is a verb in the infinitive mood, or a gerund, it may be accompanied by objective or adverbial adjuncts, as,

"*To rise early* is healthful."

"*To love one's enemies* is a Christian duty."

"*Playing with fire* is dangerous."

PREDICATE.

307. The Predicate of a sentence may be

1. Simple. **2. Complex.**

SIMPLE PREDICATE.

308. The **predicate** of a sentence is **simple** when the notion to be conveyed is expressed by a single finite verb; as, "Virtue *flourishes*." "Time *flies*." "I *love*."

COMPLEX PREDICATE.

309. Many verbs do not make complete sense by themselves, but require some other word to be used with them to make the sense complete. Of this kind are the intransitive verbs *be*, *become*, *grow*, *seem*, *can*, *do*, *shall*, *will*, &c., and such transitive verbs, as *make*, *call*.

To say, "The horse is," "The light becomes," "I can," or "I made the man," makes no sense. It is requisite to use some other word or phrase (a substantive, an adjective, or a verb in the infinitive) with the verb; as, "The horse *is black*." "The light *becomes dim*," "I *can write*." "It *made* the man *mad*." "He *was made king*." Verbs of this kind are called **Verbs of incomplete Predication**, and the words used with them to make the predication complete may be called the **complement of the predicate**.

310. The **predicate** of a sentence is **complex** when it consists of **a verb of incomplete predication accompanied by its complement.**

1. Subjective Complement.

311. When a verb of incomplete predication is intransitive or passive, the complement of the predicate stands in the predicative relation to the subject; as, "He is prudent." "He became rich." "He is called John." "The wine tastes sour." "He feels sick." This kind of complement may be termed the *Subjective Complement*.

2. Objective Complement.

312. When the verb is transitive, and in the active voice, the **complement** of the predicate stands in the **attributive relation** to the **object** of the verb; as, "He dyed the cloth red." "She called the man a liar." This kind of complement may be termed the **Objective Complement.**

3. Infinitive Complement.

312*b*. The third kind of complement is that which follows such verbs as *can*, *will*, *must*, &c., as "I can *write*," "He must *go*." This may be termed the **infinitive complement**, or **complementary infinitive.** The *object* of the sentence is often attached to the dependent infinitive.

OBJECT.

313. The Object of a verb may be

1. Simple. 2. Compound. 3. Complex.

These distinctions are the same as in the case of the Subject (§ 303, &c.).

There is also a peculiar kind of complex object, in which a substantive clause is replaced by a substantive followed by a verb in the infinitive mood. Thus, for "I wish *that you may succeed*," we may have "I wish *you to succeed*;" for "I believe *that the man is guilty*," we may have "I believe *the man to be guilty*."

314. The neuter *it* often serves as a temporary representative of a complex object, showing its grammatical relation to the sentence, as "I think *it* foolish *to act so*."

315. The object of a verb may have any combination of attributive adjuncts attached to it. It is then said to be **enlarged or expanded.**

COMPLEX SENTENCES.

316. A Complex Sentence is one which, besides a principal subject and predicate, contains one or more subordinate clauses, which have subjects and predicates of their own.

317. Subordinate Clauses are of three kinds:—

1. Substantive Clauses.
2. Adjective Clauses.
3. Adverbial Clauses.

SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

318. A Substantive Clause is one which, in its relation to the rest of the sentence, is **equivalent to a substantive.** It may be either the subject or the object of the verb in the principal clause, or it may be in apposition to some other substantive, or be governed by a preposition.

Substantive clauses usually begin either with the conjunction *that*, or with an interrogative word. The conjunction *that*, however, is frequently understood ; as "I saw *he was tired.*"

319. In the sentence "I know that he did this," the clause '*that he did this*' is the object of the verb '*know.*'

In "He asked me how old I was," the clause '*how old I was*' is the object of the verb '*asked.*' *

In "When I set out is uncertain" the clause '*when I set out*' is the subject of the verb '*is.*' *

In "We should have arrived sooner, but that we met with an accident," the clause '*that we met with an accident*' is governed by the preposition '*but.*'

320. When a substantive clause is the subject of a verb, it is usually represented temporarily by the pleonastic demonstrative '*it,*' as "*It* is not true *that he died yesterday.*"

ADJECTIVE CLAUSES.

321. An Adjective Clause is one which, in its relation to the rest of the sentence, is **equivalent to an adjective.** It stands in the attributive relation to a substantive, and is attached to the word which it qualifies by means of a relative pronoun, or a relative adverb which is equivalent to a relative pronoun preceded by a preposition.

In the sentence "Look at the exercise which I have written," the clause '*which I have written*' qualifies the noun '*exercise,*' and is much the same in force as the participial phrase 'written by me.'

In "That is the house where I dwell," the clause '*where I dwell*' qualifies the noun '*house.*' *Where* is equivalent to *in which.*

* *How* and *when* are here interrogative words. In cases of this sort we get what is called a *dependent* (or *indirect*) *question.*

322. The relative is sometimes omitted, as, "Where is the book *I gave you?*" for *which I gave you;* "I have a mind *presages me such thrift,*" &c., for *which presages,* &c.

323. Sometimes adjective clauses are used substantively, *i.e.,* with no antecedent expressed, as "Who steals my purse, steals trash." This omission of the antecedent is usual when the relative *what* is used, as, "I heard what he said," "There is no truth in what he said."

324. Clauses beginning with *as* must be regarded as adjective clauses, when they follow *such* and *same.* Thus, in "I do not admire such books as he writes," the clause *as he writes* is an adjective clause qualifying *books,* and co-ordinate with *such.*

325. An adjective clause (like an ordinary adjective) has usually a definitive or restrictive force. But it often happens that clauses introduced by relatives are, as regards their *force* and *meaning,* co-ordinate with the principal clause. Such a clause is *continuative* rather than *definitive.* Thus, in "I wrote to your brother, who replied that you had not arrived," the sense of the sentence would be the same if *and he* were substituted for *who.*

ADVERBIAL CLAUSES.

326. An **Adverbial Clause** is one which, in its relation to the rest of the sentence, is **equivalent to an adverb.** It stands in the adverbial relation to a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

Thus, in the sentence, "He was writing a letter when I arrived," the clause "*when I arrived,*" indicates the time at which the action expressed by the verb *was writing* took place. The clause "*when I arrived*" is therefore in the adverbial relation to the verb *was writing.*

CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBIAL CLAUSES.

327. Adverbial Clauses may be arranged in the following classes :—

1.—Adverbial Clauses relating to Time.

328. Clauses of this kind begin either with the connective adverbs which denote time, or with the conjunctions *before, after, while, since, ere, until,* &c. As, "Every one listens *when he speaks.*" "He punished the boy *whenever he did wrong.*" "He never spoke *after he fell.*"

2.—Adverbial Clauses relating to Place.

329. Clauses of this kind are introduced by the relative or connective adverbs *where, whither, whence,* &c. As, "He is still standing *where I left him.*" "*Whither I go* ye cannot come."

3.—Adverbial Clauses relating to Manner.

330. Adverbial clauses relating to manner are commonly introduced by the relative or connective adverb *as*. *E.g.*, "He did *as he was told.*" "It turned out *as I expected.*"

4.—Adverbial Clauses relating to Degree.

331. Clauses of this kind are introduced by the conjunction *than*, or the connective adverbs *the* (§ 107) and *as*.

Adverbial clauses denoting *degree* are always attached to adjectives or adverbs. They are almost always elliptical.

332. *E.g.*, "He is not so (*or* as) tall as I thought" (*i.e.*, as I thought *he was tall*). Here the clause "as I thought [he was tall]" qualifies (or is in the adverbial relation to) the adjective *tall*, and is co-ordinate with the demonstrative adverb *so;* and the relative adverb *as* at the beginning of the adverbial clause qualifies *tall* understood.

5.—Adverbial Clauses relating to Cause.

333. These usually begin with the conjunctions *because* and *for*.

6.—Adverbial Clauses relating to Purpose and Consequence.

334. *E.g.*, "He ran so fast *that he was out of breath.*" Here the adverbial clause "*that he was out of breath*" stands in the adverbial relation to *fast*.

335. Adverbial clauses relating to *purpose* come also under this head. *E.g.*, "He labours *that he may become rich.*" Here the adverbial clause qualifies the verb *labours*.

7.—Adverbial Clauses relating to Condition.

336. Clauses of this kind begin with the conjunctions *if*, *unless*, *except*, *though*, *although*, and the compounds *however*, *whoever*, *whatever*, &c.

337. In adverbial clauses of *condition*, the principal sentence is called the *consequent clause* (*i.e.*, the clause which expresses the *consequence*); the subordinate sentence is called the *hypothetical clause.*

338. Suppositions may be of two kinds.

(**A.**) Suppositions of the first kind relate to some *actual* event or state of things, which was, is, or will be *real*, independently of our thought respecting it. In such suppositions the indicative mood is employed.

339. *Examples.*—"If the prisoner committed the crime, he deserves death. If he did not commit it, all the witnesses swore falsely." "If he is at home, I shall see him." "If your letter is finished, bring it to me."

340. (**B.**) Suppositions of the second kind treat an event or a state of things *as a mere conception of the mind.* In suppositions of this class, the subjunctive mood is employed.

341. A supposition which is contrary to some fact, present or past, is necessarily a mere conception of the mind, and therefore the subjunctive mood is used.

Examples.—"If he were present (which he *is* not), I would speak to him." "If our horse had not fallen down (which he did), we should not have missed the train."

342. Clauses expressing a *wish* contrary to the fact have also the subjunctive mood. Thus, "I wish that he *were* here (which he is not)."

343. When we make a supposition with regard to the future, and state its consequence, as a mere conception of the mind, the subjunctive mood must be used in both clauses.

Examples.—"If he were rewarded, he would be encouraged to persevere."

In suppositions the conjunction *if* is often omitted. *E.g.*, "Had I known this (*i.e.*, If I had known this), I would not have come."

344. Clauses beginning with *that* often have a *limiting* or *defining* (*i.e.*, an *adverbial*) force in relation to an adjective, as "He was vexed that you did not come"; "I am sure that he did it."

COMPOUND SENTENCES.

345. A **compound sentence** is one which consists of two or more co-ordinate principal sentences, joined together **by co-ordinative conjunctions**, as "He is happy, but I am not"; "They toil not, neither do they spin."

346. Co-ordinate clauses are grammatically independent of each other, whereas every subordinate clause is a *component part* of some other clause or sentence.

CONTRACTED SENTENCES.

347. When co-ordinate sentences contain either the same subject, the same predicate, the same object, the same complement, or the same adverbial adjunct to the predicate, it often happens that the portion which they have in common is expressed only once. In this case the sentence is said to be **contracted.**

Examples.—"Neither I nor you have seen that," *i.e.*, "Neither I [have seen that,] nor you have seen that." "He loved not wisely, but too well"; *i.e.*, "He loved not wisely, but [he loved] too well." Here the predicate is expressed only once.

"Religion purifies and ennobles the soul"; *i.e.*, "Religion purifies [the soul] and [religion] ennobles the soul." Here the subject and the object are expressed only once.

"He is either drunk or mad"; *i.e.*, "Either he is drunk or [he is] mad." Here the subject and the verb of incomplete predication *is* are expressed only once.

"He advances slowly but surely"; *i.e.*, "He advances slowly, but [he advances] surely." Here the common subject and predicate are expressed only once.

"He reads and writes well"; *i.e.*, "He reads [well] and [he] writes well." Here the common subject and the common adverbial adjunct are expressed only once.

SUMMARY OF THE RULES OF SYNTAX.

348. [Most of these rules, having been already stated in preceding parts of this work, are here only referred to, that the pupil may have the opportunity of studying them afresh in connexion with each other].

CONCORD.

349. In inflected languages (like Latin, German, or English in its earliest stage) **concord** means the use of those grammatical forms which are congruous with each other.

350. In modern English, grammatical inflexions have been to a great extent dispensed with. We have therefore very little of the above kind of concord. But as regards *concord expressed by form* we still have the rule that a verb must agree with its subject in number and person, and that the demonstrative pronoun of the Third Person must agree in gender and number with the noun for which it stands. If the term *agreement* is used for anything beyond this, it can only denote *congruity of use*, that is, sameness in the grammatical relations which *might* be represented by form, but are not. To say, for example, that in "The woman who was hurt has recovered," 'who,' *agrees* in gender with 'woman,' means no more than that the pronoun, as used in that sentence, represents a female person.

SYNTAX OF NOUNS.

351. A noun in the **nominative case** may be used

1. As the subject of a sentence (§ 273).
2. In apposition to a noun or pronoun in the nominative case (§ 286, 2).
3. As the complement of an Intransitive or Passive Verb of Incomplete Predication (§ 309).
4. As a Nominative Absolute (§ 291, 5).
5. As a Nominative of Address.

352. A noun in the **possessive case** must be attached to some other noun, to which it forms an Attributive Adjunct* (§ 286, 3), and on which it is sometimes said to depend (see § 286). This noun is sometimes omitted when it can readily be supplied in thought, as "I bought this at Smith's [shop]," "We went to St. Paul's [church]."

353. A noun in the **objective case** may be used

1. As the direct object of a transitive verb (§ 288).
2. As the indirect object of a transitive verb, whether active or passive (§ 291, 4).
3. In apposition to a noun or pronoun in the objective case.
4. As the complement of a transitive verb of incomplete predication (§ 312).
5. In various Adverbial Adjuncts (§§ 291—293).
6. As a Cognate Objective.
7. After Prepositions.

SYNTAX OF ADJECTIVES.

354. The attributive and the predicative use of Adjectives are explained in §§ 286, 311. As regards adjectives used substantively and adjectives which have become substantives, see § 75.

355. The Indefinite Article *an* or *a* should be repeated before each of a series of nouns standing for different things, as "I saw a horse, a cow, and a pig in the stable," unless the things are so closely connected with each other as to form a sort of compound group; as "He built a coachhouse and stable;" "Give me a cup and saucer."

The singular demonstrative adjectives 'each' and 'every' may be placed once before two or more nouns, as "Every man, woman, and child was slaughtered"; "Each boy and girl received a present.'

356. The definitive adjectives 'the,' 'these,' 'those,' 'my,' 'our,' &c., *need* not be repeated before each of several nouns, though of course they *may* be so repeated. We commonly say "The King and Queen"; "The tables and chairs were in confusion"; "He gathered all the apples and pears"; "My uncle, aunt, and cousin came yesterday."

* A noun in the possessive case, however, does not cease to be a *noun*. It does not become an adjective because its *form* makes it partake of the functions of an adjective. In 'John's father' 'John's' is a *noun* in the possessive case, as in 'Caesaris uxor,' 'Caesaris' is a *noun* in the genitive case. Similarly a noun in the objective case, with or without a preposition, is often an *Adverbial Adjunct* (like a noun in the dative or ablative in Latin). But it is going too far to say that the noun in the objective, dative, or ablative *is* an adverb.

monstratives must be repeated if a plural noun is accom- two or more adjectives marking qualities which do not common to all the things named by the noun. Thus, "The l industrious boys," means 'the boys who are both clever trious,' but we cannot speak of "the idle and industrious ause the two attributes do not co-exist in the same boys; ay 'the idle and the industrious boys.'

SYNTAX OF PRONOUNS.

ronouns must agree in Gender, Number, and Person nouns for which they stand. Their case is determined nstruction of the clause in which they occur. Thus: 'I e John (*obj.*); he (*nom.*) is an idle boy'; 'I know the) whose (*poss.*) portrait hangs there,' &c.

he nominative and objective cases are constructed as in nouns. ssive cases have become adjectives (§ 100).

he relative pronoun is frequently omitted (§ 120) when, if it would be in the objective case; but it is rarely omitted xpressed, it would be in the nominative case.

ne pronoun *he*, *she*, *it*, ought to agree in gender and number oun to which it refers. But it often happens that it has to ith reference to the individuals of a class that may consist of s, distributed by means of the singular indefinite pronouns d 'every,' or to either of two singular nouns differing in nd connected by the alternative pronouns 'either—or,' -nor.' The difficulty that thus arises is sometimes evaded by plural, as "Let each esteem other better than themselves;" gore a man or a woman so that *they* die" (*Exod.* xxi. 28); outward charms alone should man or woman build *their* pre- o please" (*Opie*).

SYNTAX OF VERBS.

Concord.

he general rule respecting the concord of verbs is, that rees with its subject in number and person (§ 294). See

Words that are plural in form (as *mathematics*, *politics*) ar s treated as singular in construction (§ 50), and some sin ns have been mistaken for plurals. A plural used as th book, &c., must be treated as a singular, as "Johnson's

'Lives of the Poets' is a work of great interest;" and generally when a plural denotes a whole of some kind, the verb may be singular, as "Forty yards is a good distance;" "Two-thirds of this is mine by right." "Twice two is four." For the usage when the subject is a collective noun, see § 296, and for the case of a compound subject, or of a noun in the singular to which other nouns are joined by means of *with*, § 297.

363. When subjects differing in number, or person, or both, are connected by *and*, the verb must always be in the plural; and in the first person, if one of the subjects is of that person; in the second person if one of the subjects is of that person, and none of the first, as, 'I and he are of the same age,' 'You and I shall be too late.'

364. Subjects connected by *either—or* and *neither—nor* imply an alternative. Hence a plural verb cannot be attached to two such subjects, if they are in the singular. The sentence is in fact contracted (§ 304), as, "Either John [is mistaken] or Thomas is mistaken"; "Neither John [is mistaken] nor Thomas is mistaken."

365. This sort of contraction should be avoided if the subjects differ in number or person.

Use of the Moods.

366. Rules for the use of the **Indicative** and **Imperative** Moods are superfluous.

367. The rules for the use of the **Subjunctive Mood** in **hypothetical** and **concessive clauses** are given in §§ 340, &c.

368. The **Subjunctive** is the proper mood to use after *that* and *lest* in clauses denoting **purpose** (§ 335).

369. The present tense of the subjunctive is used to express a wish; as "God *bless* you"; "God *be praised*"; "*May* every blessing *attend* you," &c.

370. The **Infinitive Mood** may be used

1. As the subject or object of another verb (§§ 150, 273, 313).
2. With a noun or pronoun in the objective as its subject, forming a substantive phrase which is the object of another verb (§ 313).
3. As an Attributive Adjunct to a noun (§ 386, 4), or as an Adverbial Adjunct to a verb or adjective (§ 291, 2). It is only the gerundial infinitive that can be thus used.
4. As the complement of a verb of incomplete predication (§ 309).

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.[3]

SEPARATION OF LOGICAL SUBJECT AND LOGICAL PREDICATE.

371. The first stage in the analysis of a simple sentence is to separate the grammatical subject with its adjuncts from the predicate verb with whatever is attached to it as object, complement, or adverbial adjunct. The grammatical subject with its attributive adjuncts forms the *logical* subject of the sentence; the predicate verb, with all that is attached to it, forms the *logical* predicate of the sentence (§ 270).

Examples.

Logical Subject. (*Grammatical Subject with Attributive Adjuncts.*)	*Logical Predicate.* (*Predicate Verb, with Objective and Adverbial Adjuncts.*)
Our messenger	has not arrived.
We	will carry all our property with us.
The village preacher's modest mansion	rose there.
The wretched prisoner, overwhelmed by his misfortunes,	was on the point of putting an end to his existence.
A bird in the hand	is worth two in the bush.

Analysis of the Logical Subject.

372. The following example illustrates the separation of the logical subject into the grammatical subject and its attributive adjuncts (§ 270).

[3] Only elementary analysis is attempted in this work. For the means of dealing with more difficult examples the learner must consult the author's larger grammars.

"The soldiers of the tenth legion, wearied by their long march, and exhausted from want of food, were unable to resist the onset of the enemy."

Logical Subject.		*Logical Predicate.*
Grammatical Subject.	*Attributive Adjuncts of Subject.*	
Soldiers	1. The 2. of the tenth legion 3. wearied by their long march 4. exhausted from want of food	were unable to resist the onset of the enemy.

Analysis of the Logical Predicate.

373. In the following examples the logical predicate is separated into its component parts :—

Logical Subject.	*Logical Predicate.*		
	Predicate Verb.	*Object, with Adjuncts.*	*Adverbial Adjuncts.*
The sight of distress	fills	a benevolent mind	1. always 2. with compassion.
We	will bend	our course	1. thither 2. from off the tossing of these fiery waves.

Analysis of both Subject and Predicate.

374. In the following example both the subject and the object of

the verb are separated into the substantive and the attributive adjuncts of which they are composed :—

"*The mournful tidings of the death of his son filled the proud heart of the old man with the keenest anguish.*"

Subject.	*Attributive Adjuncts of Subject.*	*Predicate.*	*Object.*	*Attributive Adjuncts of Object.*	*Adverbial Adjuncts of Predicate.*
tidings	1. The 2. mournful 3. of the death of his son	filled	heart	1. the 2. proud 3 of the old man	with the keenest anguish

Analysis of Complex Predicate.

375. The following examples show how a complex predicate (§§ 309-312) may be separated into its components :—

"*That hero was deservedly called the saviour of his country.*"

Subject with Adjuncts.	*Predicate.*		*Adverbial Adjuncts of Predicate.*	
	Verb of Incomplete Predication.	*Subjective Complement.*	*Adverbial Adjunct of Verb.*	*Adverbial Adjunct of Complement.*
that hero	was called	the saviour of his country	deservedly	

"*This misfortune will certainly make the poor man miserable for life.*"

Subject with Adjuncts.	*Predicate.*		*Object with Adjuncts.*	*Adverbial Adjuncts of Predicate.*	
	Verb of Incomplete Predication.	*Objective Complement.*		*Adjunct of Verb.*	*Adjunct of Complement.*
This misfortune	will make	miserable	the poor man	certainly	for life

Analysis of an Adjective Clause.

375d. The construction and analysis of an Adjective Clause are exactly like those of the sentence which we get by substituting for the relative pronoun or adverb its antecedent or the corresponding demonstrative. Take for example the Adjective Clauses of the following sentences :—

A. "The money [which I owe you] shall be paid to-morrow."

B. "We went to see the poor man [whose son was drowned at sea]."

C. "This is the house [that we live in]."

D. "I will show you the spot [where the accident happened]."

A. { (1) *Which* I owe you.
(2) I owe you *the money*.

B. { (1) *Whose* son was drowned at sea.
(2) *His* son was drowned at sea.

C. { (1) *That* we live *in*.
(2) We live *in that house*.

D. { (1) *Where* the accident happened.
(2) The accident happened *there*.

	Subject.	*Attrib. Adjuncts of Subject.*	*Predicate.*	*Object.*	*Attrib. Adj. of Object.*	*Adv. Adj. of Predicate.*
A. 2	I		owe	1. (*indirect*)—'you' 2. (*direct*)—'the money'		
A. 1	I		owe	1. (*indirect*)—'you' 2. (*direct*)—'which'		
B. 2	son	his	was drowned			at sea
B. 1	son	whose	was drowned			at sea
C. 2	We		live			in that house
C. 1	We		live			that—in = in which
D. 2	The accident		happened			there
D. 1	The accident		happened			where

Complete Analysis of a Sentence.

373. The thorough analysis of a sentence is to be conducted in the following manner :—

i. Set down the subject of the sentence. (See § 273, &c., for a statement of what the subject may consist of.)

ii. Set down the words, phrases, or adjective clauses which may form attributive adjuncts of the subject. (See § 286 for a list of what these may consist of.)

iii. Set down the predicate verb. If the verb is one of incomplete predication, set down the complement of the predicate, and indicate that the verb and its complement make up the entire predicate (§§ 307-312).

iv. If the predicate be a transitive verb, set down the object of the verb (see § 288). If the predicate be a verb of incomplete predication followed by an infinitive mood, set down the object of the dependent infinitive.

v. Set down those words, phrases, or adjective clauses, which are in the attributive relation to the object of the predicate, or to the object of the complement of the predicate, if the latter be a verb in the infinitive mood (§ 315).

vi. Set down those words, phrases, or adverbial clauses which are in the adverbial relation to the predicate, or to the complement of the predicate. (See § 291 for a list of what these may consist of.)

EXAMPLES OF THE ANALYSIS OF SIMPLE SENTENCES.

377. "*Having ridden up to the spot, the enraged officer struck the unfortunate man dead with a single blow of his sword.*"

Subject, 'officer.'

Attributive adjuncts of subject, 1. 'the' (§ 286, 1). 2. 'enraged' (§ 286, 1). 3. 'having ridden up to the spot' (§ 286, 1).

Predicate made up of { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'struck.' *Objective complement* (§ 312) 'dead.'

Object, 'man.'

Attributive adjuncts of object, 1. 'the.' 2. 'unfortunate.'

Adverbial adjuncts of predicate, 1. 'on the spot' (§ 291, 2). 2. 'with a single blow of his sword' (§ 291, 2)

378. "*Coming home, I saw an officer with a drawn sword riding along the street.*"

Subject,	'I.'
Attributive adjunct of subject,	'coming home.'
Predicate,	'saw.'
Object,	'officer.'
Attributive adjuncts of object,	1. 'an.' 2. 'with a drawn sword' (§ 286, 4). 3. 'riding along the street.'

379. "*It is I.*"

Subject,	'It.'
Predicate made up of	*Verb of incomplete predication,* 'is.' *Subjective complement,* 'I.'

380. "*Who are you* ?*"

Subject,	'you.'
Predicate made up of	*Verb of incomplete predication,* 'are.' *Subjective complement,* 'who?'

381. "*The duke will never grant this forfeiture to hold.*"

Subject,	'duke.'
Attributive adjunct of subject,	'the.'
Predicate,	'will grant.'
Objective infinitive phrase (§ 313)	'this forfeiture to hold.'
Adverbial adjunct of pred.	'never.'

382. "*All but one were killed.*"

Here in Anglo-Saxon we should have 'ealle bútan ánum,' where the words *bútan ánum* form a limiting adjunct of *ealle*. The modern expression may be dealt with in the same way, as must also such phrases as 'the next but one,' 'the last but two,' &c. But in Anglo-Saxon and early English, when a *negative* assertion was thus limited, the conjunctive use of *but* supplanted the prepositional use, giving a separate elliptical sentence, as in 'There is no wyght that hereth it but we tweye' (*Chaucer*). In full this would be 'but we tweye hear it.' In modern English this has been extended to the use of *but* after *all*, as in 'The boy stood on the burning deck, Whence all *but he* had fled' (*F. Hemans*). Here *but he* is a mere anomalous phrase imiting 'all.' The ellipsis cannot be filled up in the regular manner.

* The construction of the interrogative sentence is the same as that of the declarative answer, "I am he."

But the nominative case is usual, at all events when the limiting phrase comes before the verb. After a transitive verb of course the objective case is used, as 'I saw nobody but him.'

ANALYSIS OF COMPLEX SENTENCES.

383. A Substantive Clause (or Noun Sentence, as it is often called) does the same sort of work in a sentence as a Noun. An Adjective Clause does the same sort of work as an Adjective. An Adverbial Clause does the same sort of work as an Adverb.

It follows that every subordinate clause is an integral part of the entire sentence, and has the same relation to some constituent part of the sentence as if it were a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

In the analysis of a complex sentence this relation must be clearly indicated.

384. When there are subordinate clauses, the analysis of the entire sentence must first be conducted *as if for each subordinate clause we had some single word.* When the relation of the several clauses to the main sentence and to each other has thus been clearly marked, the subordinate clauses are to be analysed on the same principles as simple sentences. Mere conjunctions (§ 222) do not enter into the grammatical structure of the clauses which they introduce. No combination of words forms a *dependent sentence* without a *finite verb* expressed or understood.

SENTENCES CONTAINING SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

I. A Substantive Clause as the Subject of a Verb.

385. "*That you have wronged me doth appear in this.*"

Subject (*substantive clause*), 'that you have wronged me' (1).
Predicate, 'doth appear.'
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, 'in this.'

Analysis of (1).

Subject, 'you.'
Predicate, 'have wronged.'
Object, 'me.'

386. "*It is not true that he said that.*"

Temporary or provisional subject, 'it.'
Real subj. (*substantive clause*), 'that he said that'
Predicate, made up of { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'is.' / *Subjective complement*, 'true.'
Adverbial adjunct of predicate 'not.'

II. A Substantive Clause as the Object of a Verb.

387. "*You know very well that I never said so.*"

Subject, 'you.'
Predicate, 'know.'
Object (*substantive clause*), 'that I never said so' (1).
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, 'very well.'

Analysis of (1).

Subject, 'I.'
Predicate, 'said.'
Adverbial adjuncts of predicate, 1. 'never.' 2. 'so.'

388. "*He asked me how old I was.*"

Subject, 'he.'
Predicate, 'asked.'
Object (*substantive clause*) 'how old I was' (1).
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, 'me' (*i.e.*, 'of me').

Analysis of (1).

Subject 'I.'
Predicate, *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'was.' *Subjective complement*, 'old.'
Adverbial adjunct of complement, 'how.'

III. A Substantive Clause after a Preposition.

389. "*I should have forgiven him, but that he repeated the offence.*"

Here we have a substantive clause preceded by the preposition *but*, the whole phrase forming an adverbial adjunct of the predicate "should have forgiven" (§ 291, 2).

SENTENCES CONTAINING ADJECTIVE CLAUSES.

390. An **Adjective Clause** is always in the **Attributive Relation to some noun or pronoun** in the sentence of which it forms a part.

391. "*The cohort which had already crossed the river, quickly came to blows with the enemy.*"

Subject, 'cohort.'
Attributive adjuncts of subject, 1. *Article*, 'the.' 2. *Adjective clause*, 'which had already crossed the river' (1).
Predicate, 'came.'
Adverbial adjuncts of predicate, 1. 'quickly.' 2. 'to blows.' 3. 'with the enemy.'

Analysis of (1).

Subject, 'which.'
Predicate, 'had crossed.'
Object, 'river.'
Attributive adjunct to object, 'the.'
Adverbial adjunct to predicate, 'already.'

392. "*Give me* that large book that you have in your hand.*"

Here the adjective clause "that you have in your hand" is in the attributive relation to the object 'book.' The relative *that* is the object of *have.*

393. "*Give me* what you have in your hand.*"

Here the adjective clause, "what you have in your hand" is used substantively, that is, without having its antecedent *that* expressed. In the analysis we may either introduce the word *that,* the object of *give,* and set down the relative adjective clause as an attributive adjunct to it, or we may at once call the adjective clause the object of the verb 'give' (§ 318).

Care must be taken not to confound adjective clauses like the above with substantive clauses beginning with the *interrogative what,* as "*Tell me what he said*" (§ 319).

394. "*His conduct is not such as I admire.*"

Here *as I admire* must be taken as an adjective clause co-ordinate with *such,* and forming an attributive adjunct to the noun 'conduct' understood, which is the complement of the predicate 'is.' *As* does duty for a relative pronoun, and is the object of *admire* (§ 324).

SENTENCES CONTAINING ADVERBIAL CLAUSES.

395. An **Adverbial Clause** is always in the **Adverbial Relation** to a **verb, adjective,** or **adverb** in the whole sentence of which it forms a part.

When such a clause begins with a *subordinative conjunction,* the conjunction does not enter into the construction of the clause. When the clause begins with a *connective adverb,* that adverb must have its own relation indicated in the analysis.

396. "*When, in Salamanca's cave,*
Him listed his magic wand to wave,
The bells would ring in Notre Dame."

Subject (*with attributive adjunct*), 'the bells.'
Predicate, 'would ring.'

* In Analysis set down 'book' as the *direct object,* and 'me' as the indirect object of 'give.'

Adverbial adjuncts of predicate, { 1. (*Adverbial clause*) 'when in Salamanca's ——— wave' (2). 2. 'in Notre Dame.'

Analysis of (2).

Subject (*Infinitive phrase*), 'to wave his magic wand.'
Predicate, 'listed,' *i.e.*, 'pleased.'
Object, 'him.'
Adverbial adjuncts of predicate, { 1. 'When.' 2. 'in Salamanca's cave'

397. "*He ran so fast that I could not overtake him.*"

Subject, 'he.'
Predicate, 'ran.'
Adverbial adjuncts of predicate, { 'fast,' *qualified by*—1. 'so' 2. 'that I could not overtake him' (3).

Analysis of (3).

(*Adverbial clause co-ordinate with* 'so.')

Subject, 'I.'
Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication,* 'could.' *Complement,* 'overtake,'
Object, 'him.'
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, 'not.'

398. "*He spoke loud that I might hear him.*"

Here also 'that' is a mere conjunction, and the clause, 'that I might hear him,' which was once a substantive clause (as in the last instance), has become adverbial, modifying 'spoke.'

399. "*He is not so wise as he is witty.*"

Subject, 'he.'
Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication,* 'is.' *Subjective complement,* 'wise.'
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, 'not.'
Co-ordinate adverbial adjuncts of complement, { 1. 'so.' 2. 'as he is witty' (1).

Analysis of (1).

(*Adverbial clause qualifying* 'wise,' *and co-ordinate with* 'so.')

Subject, 'he.'
Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication,* 'is.' *Subjective complement,* 'witty.'
Adverbial adjunct of complement, 'as.'

400. Subordinate Clauses contained within clauses which are themselves subordinate.

401. "*He inferred from this that the opinion of the judge was that the prisoner was guilty.*" 2)

Subject, 'he.'
Predicate, 'inferred.'
Object, { *Substantive clause*, 'That the opinion of the judge was that the prisoner was guilty'(1).
Adverbial adjunct of predicate, 'from this' (§ 291, 2)

Analysis of (1).

Subject, 'opinion.'
Attributive adjuncts of subject, { 1. 'the.' 2. 'of the judge.'
Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'was.' *Complement* (*Substantive clause*) 'that the prisoner was guilty' (2).

Analysis of (2).

Subject (*with attributive adjunct*), 'the prisoner.'
Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'was.' *Complement*, 'guilty.'

EXAMPLES OF THE ANALYSIS OF COMPOUND SENTENCES.

402. Ordinary sentences of this kind require no special discussion. All that has to be done is to analyse each of the co-ordinate clauses separately, omitting the conjunctions by which they are connected, but inserting *not* if the conjunctions are *neither—nor*.

403. But the greater number of sentences with compound subordinate clauses belong to the class of contracted sentences.

CONTRACTED SENTENCES.

404. Before a contracted sentence (§ 347) is analysed, the parts omitted must be expressed at full length.

405. "*We perceive that these things not only did not happen, but could not have happened.*" In full—

[(A) 'We perceive that these things not only did not happen.']
[(B) 'We perceive that these things could not have happened.']

406. "*Every assertion is either true or false, either wholly or in part.*" *In full*—

[(A) 'Every assertion is true wholly.']
[(B) 'Every assertion is true in part.']
[(C) 'Every assertion is false wholly.']
[(D) 'Every assertion is false in part.']

407. When co-ordinate sentences or clauses are connected by *neither, nor*, the simple negative *not* may be substituted for each conjunction in the analysis, the *conjunctive* portion of the words being omitted.

"*The man who neither reverences nobleness nor loves goodness, is hateful.*" *In full—*

[(A) 'The man who reverences not nobleness is hateful.']
[(B) 'The man who loves not goodness is hateful.']

Elliptical Sentences.

408. An elliptical sentence is one in which something is omitted which is essential to the complete construction of the sentence, but which is readily supplied in thought, without being expressed in words.

409. The commonest (and the most troublesome) elliptical sentences are those which begin with *as* and *than*. In analysing them care must be taken to ascertain *what the predicate really is* in the dependent clause, and what word the adverb *as* qualifies.

410. "He is as tall as I am."* In full—"He is as tall as I am *tall*."
The adverbial clause beginning with *as* is always co-ordinate with the preceding demonstrative *as* or *so*, and modifies (adverbially) the same word.

Subject, 'He.'
Predicate { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'is.'
{ *Subjective complement*, 'tall.'
Co-ordinate adverbial adjuncts of complement of predicate, { 1. 'as.'
{ 2. 'as I am [tall].' (A)

Analysis of (A).
Subject, 'I.'
Predicate, { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'am.'
{ *Complement of predicate*, 'tall.'
Adverbial adjunct of complement, 'as.'

411. We must deal in a similar manner with such sentences as :—

"He has not written so much as I have [written much]."
"He has lived as many years as you have lived [many] months."
"He does not write so well as you [write well]."
"I would as soon die as [I would soon] suffer that."
"He looks as [he would] look if he knew me."
"I cannot give you so much as five pounds [are much]."
"He cannot [do] so much as [to] read [is much]."

412. "*He is taller than I am.*' *In full—*"*He is taller than I am tall.*"
Here the adverbial clause modifies the predicate in the main sentence.

413. Deal in a similar manner with such sentences as the following:—

"He is more industrious than clever." In full—"He is more industrious than he is clever."
"He has written more letters than you [have written many letters]."

* It may be taken as a general rule that after *as* we must supply a word of the same kind of meaning as the word qualified by the simple *or* demonstrative adverb in the main clause.

APPENDIX.

WORDS BELONGING TO THE TEUTONIC STOCK OF ENGLISH.

[*Nothing more is attempted here than a brief classification, with a few examples*].

ANGLO-SAXON CONSTITUENTS OF MODERN ENGLISH.

1. Words constituting the grammatical framework of the language. Most of these have been already discussed.

1. Pronouns.
2. Numerals.
3. Prepositions.
4. Conjunctions.
5. Adjectives of irregular comparison.
6. Auxiliary Verbs.
7. All verbs of the strong conjugation (§ 175), together with a large number of verbs of the weak conjugation (particularly those given in § 176).

2. The greater part of the words formed by Teutonic suffixes (§§ 236-250).

3. Most words denoting common natural objects and phenomena :—

ác ; oak
æppel ; apple
æsc ; ash
æspen ; aspen
bitel ; beetle
bár ; boar
beofer ; beaver
beo, bio ; bee
birce ; birch
blæd (*branch*) ; blade
bóc ; beech
brid (*the young of an animal*) ; bird
bróc ; brook
clæg ; clay
clám (*mud*) ; clammy
coc ; cock
comb (*valley*) ; in names, as Alcomb, Compton
crán ; crane
cú ; cow
dæg ; day
denu (*valley*) ; den (*in names, as Tenterden*)
deór (*animal*) ; deer
eá (*water*) ; island (*i.e.* eáland)
efen ; evening
eorðe ; earth
fæðer ; feather
fisc ; fish
flód ; flood
frosc ; frog
fugel (*bird*) ; fowl
gós ; goose
hæð ; heath
hafoc ; hawk
hagol ; hail
hors ; horse
hund ; hound
lencten (*the spring*) ; Lent
leoht ; light
móna ; moon
regen ; rain
sæ ; sea
snaw ; snow
spearwa ; sparrow
stán ; stone
sumer ; summer
sunne (*fem.*) ; sun
treow ; tree
wæter ; water
woruld ; world
þunor ; thunder

4. Words relating to the house and farm.

a-bacan ; to bake
acer, æcer ; acre
æg (*pl.* aegru) ; egg
  eyry
bæð ; bath
bere ; barley
bere-ern (ern=*place*) ;
  barn
bin (*manger*) ; corn-bin
bórd ; board
bræc ; breeches
búan (*to till*) ; boor
buc ; buck-et
bulluca (*calf*) ; bullock
camb ; comb
ceaf ; chaff
cealf ; calf
cese, cyse ; cheese
cetel ; kettle
clucge (*bell*) ; clock
cnedan ; to knead
cóc ; cook
cod (bag) ; peascod
cradol ; cradle
cróc (*pot*) ; crock-ery
cwearn (*mill*) ; quern
delfan (*dig*) ; to delve
díc ; dike, ditch
ealo ; ale
erian (*to plough*) ; to ear
fearh (*liftle pig*) ; farrow
feorm (*food*) ; farm
fóda ; food
furh ; furrow
fýr ; fire
gád ; goad
gærs ; grass
geard (*hedge*) ; yard,
  garden
grút (*meal*) ; groats,
  grouts
hærfes ; harvest
heorð ; hearth
hláf ; loaf
hóf (*house*) ; hovel
hriddel (*sieve*) ; to
  riddle
hróf ; roof
hús ; house
hwǽte ; wheat
hweól ; wheel
meolc ; milk
ófen ; oven
ortgeard (*yard for worts
  or vegetables*) ; orchard
oxa ; ox
rip (*harvest*) ; reap
sceáp ; sheep
wǽgen ; wagon, wain
wudu ; wood
þæc ; thatch
þerscan ; to thresh

5. Words relating to family and kindred.

bróðor ; brother
brýd ; bride
cild (*pl.* cildra) ; child
cnápa, cnáfa (*boy*) ;
  knave
cyn ; kin
dóhtor ; daughter
fæder ; father
húsbúnda (*householder*) ;
  husband
módor ; mother
nefa ; nephew
widuwa ; widower
widuwe ; widow
wíf (*woman*) ; wife

6. Words relating to the parts of the body and natural functions.

ancleow ; ankle
ælg (*bag*) ; belly, bulge,
  bellows
bán ; bone
blód ; blood
bodig (*stature*) ; body
bósm (*fold*) ; bosom
bræð ; breath
breost ; breast
ceáca ; cheek
ceówan ; to chew
cin ; chin
cneow ; knee
eáge ; eye
eár ; ear
earm ; arm
elboga ; elbow
finger ; finger
flæsc ; flesh
fót ; foot
fýst ; fist
gesiht ; sight
góma ; gum
hǽr ; hair
hand ; hand
heáfod ; head
heals (*neck*) ; halter
hél ; heel
neorte ; heart
hlist (*the sense of
  hearing*) ; listen
hoh (*heel*) ; hough
hricg (*back*) ; ridge
hrif (*bowels*) ; midriff
lim ; limb
lippe ; lip
maga (*stomach*) ; maw
mearg ; marrow
múð ; mouth
nægl ; nail
nasu ; nose
sculder ; shoulder
seón ; to see
tóð ; tooth
tunge ; tongue
þeoh ; thigh, thews
þróte ; throat

7. Words denoting common attributive ideas.

blæc ; black
blác (*pale*) ; bleach
bleo ; blue
brád ; broad
brún ; brown
ceald ; cold
dearc ; dark
deóp ; deep
eald ; old
fægr ; fair
fætt ; fat
fúl ; foul
geolo ; yellow
god ; good
græg ; grey
gréne ; green
hal ; hale, whole
heáh ; high
heard ; hard
hefig ; heavy
hwæt (*sharp*) ; to whet
hwít ; white
leóf (*dear*) ; lief
rud (red) ; ruddy, ruddle, ruddock (*the robin-red-breast*)

8. Words relating to common actions and things.

acsian ; to ask
áth ; oath
beatan ; to beat
beódan ; to bid
beorgan (*to protect*) ; burrow
béran ; to bear
berstan ; to burst
biddan ; to bid
bítan ; to bite
blæsan (*to blow*) ; blast
blédan ; to bleed
brecan ; to break
bot (*remedy*) ; to boot
brucan (*to use*) ; to brook
bugan (*to bend*) ; bough, elbow
bur (*dwelling*) ; bower
burh (*fort*) ; borough
ceap (*bargain*) ; chapman, cheapside
ceorl ; churl
ceorfan (*to cut*) ; carve
ceósan ; to choose
clypian ; to call, *yclept*
cnapa (*boy*) ; knave
creópan ; to creep
cuman ; to come
cunnan (*to know, to be able*)
cwén (*woman*) ; queen, quean
cwysan ; (s)quash
cwelian, cwellan ; to kill, to quell
cweðan ; to say (*quoth*)
dæl (*part*) ; deal, dole
dón ; to do
drædan ; to dread
drencan ; to drench
dreógan (*to work*) ; drudge
drigan ; to dry (*drought, drug*)
drincan ; to drink
dwínan (*to pine*) ; dwindle
dyppan ; to dip
eorl ; earl
etan ; to eat
faran (*to go*) ; fare
fadian (*set in order*) ; fiddle-faddle
feallan ; to fall
fédan ; to feed
félan ; to feel
feoh (*cattle*) ; fee
fleógan ; to fly
folgian *or* fyligean ; to follow
fretan (*gnaw*) ; fret
galan (*to sing*) ; nightingale
gár (*dart*) to gore
geréfa ; reeve, sheriff (-shire-reeve)
gifan ; to give
gitan ; to get
grafan (*to dig*) ; engrave
habban ; to have
ham (*dwelling*) ; home
helan (*to hide*) ; hole, hell
hýran ; to hear
hweorfan (*to turn*) ; warp
lár ; lore
leód (*people*) ; lewd
líc (*corpse*) ; lychgate
luf ; love
sciran ; to shear
scufan ; to shove, scuffle
snícan (*to creep*) ; sneak, snake
soð (*truth*) ; sooth
sorh ; sorrow
sped (*success*) ; speed
sprécan ; to speak
steopan (*bereave*) ; stepson
wed (*pledge*) ; wed-lock
wóp (*weeping*) ; whoop
wæscan ; to wash
wealcan (*to roll*) ; walk
weorpan (*to throw*) ; mould-warp
yrnan ; to run

[For fuller lists the reader is referred to the author's larger grammar.]

THE CLASSICAL ELEMENT IN ENGLISH.

The greater part of the abstract terms in English, and words relating to religion, law, science, and literature, are of Latin or Greek origin. Most words of three or more syllables are of classical origin, and a very large number of those of two syllables, the exceptions being mostly words formed by *English* suffixes from monosyllabic roots. Most monosyllabic words in English are of Teutonic origin, but many are derived from Latin and Greek, the greater part having come to us through French. The following* belong to this class :—

ace (*as*)
age (*aetaticum*), *Old Fr.* édage
aid (adjutum)
aim (aestimare)
alms (ελεημοσυνη)
arch (arcus)
aunt (amita)
balm (balsamum)
base (bassus)
beast (bestia)
beef (boves)
blame (blasphemia)
boil (bullire)
boon (bonus)
brace (brachium)
brief (brevis)
bull (bulla)
cage† (cavea)
car, carry, charge (carrus)
cape (caput)
cash (capsa)
chafe (calefacere)
chain (catena)
chalk (calx)
chair (cathedra)
chance (*cadentia*)
charm (carmen)
chase (*captiare*)
chief (caput)
coin (cuneus)
couch (collocare)
count (comes)
count (computare)
cork (cortex)
cost (constare)
coy (quietus)
cue (cauda)
cull (colligere)
dame (domina)
daunt (*domitare*)
dean (decanus)
desk, dish (discus)
dose (δοσις)
doubt (dubitare)
dress (dirigere)
due (debitum)
duke (dux)
fair (feria)
faith (fides)
fay (fata)
feat (factum)
feign (fingere)
fierce (ferus)
foil (folium)
force (fortis)
forge (fabrica)
found (fundere)
fount (fons)
frail (fragilis)
frown (frons)
fruit (fructus)
fry (frigere)
glaive (gladius)
gourd (cucurbita)
grant (*credentare*)
grease (crassus)
grief (gravis)
host (hospit-)
hulk (δλκας)
inch (uncia)
jaw (gabata)
jest (gestum)
jet (jactum)
join (jungo)
joy (gaudium)
lace (laqueus)
lease (laxare)
liege (*legius*)
lounge (longus)
mace (massa)
mail, *armour* (macula, *mesh*)
male (masculus)
mount (mons)
niece (neptis)
noise (noxia)
nurse (nutrix)
ounce (uncia)
pace (passus)
paint (pingere)
pair (par)
pay (pacare)
peace (pax)
peach (persica)
place (platea)
plait (plectere)
plea, plead (placitum)
plum (prunum)
plunge (*plumbicare*)
point (punctum)
poor (pauper)
praise (pretiare)
pray (precari)
preach (prædicare)
pray (præda)
priest (presbyter)
print (primere)
prize, price (pretium)
proof (probare)
push (pulsare)
quire (chorus)
quite (quietus)
rage, rave (rabies)
ray (radius)
rear (retro)
rill (rivulus)
river (riparius)
roll (rotulus)
round (rotundus)
rule (regula)
safe (salvus)
sage (sapiens)
sauce (salsus)
scarce (*ex-scarptus*)
scourge (ex-corrigere)
seal (sigillum)
search (*circare*)
seat (sedes)
short (curtus)
siege (assedium)
sir (senior)
sluice (exclusis)
soar (*exaurare*)
source (surgere)
spice (species)
spouse (sponsus)
sprain (exprimo)
spy (specio)
squad, square (*exquadrare*)
stage (*staticus*)
strain (stringo)
strange (extraneus)
strait (strictus)
street (strata)
sue, suit (sequor)
sure (securus)
taint (tinctus)
task (taxare)
taste (*taxitare*)
taunt (temptare)
tense (tempus)
tour, turn (tornare)
trace, trait (tractus)
treat (tractare)
vaunt (*vanitare*)
veal (vitulus)
view (videre)
void (viduus)
vouch (vocare)
vow (votum)
waste (vastus)

The above list does not include a large number of monosyllables, the Latin origin of which is obvious, such as *cede* (*cedo*), *long* (*longus*).

* For further list see the author's larger grammar.

† Note the curious change of b, p, or v, between vowels into soft *v*.

A List of the principal Latin Words from which Derivatives are formed in English.*

Acer (*sharp*), acidus (*sour*), acerbus (*bitter*); acrid, acerbity, acrimony, acid.
Acuo (*I sharpen*); acute, acumen.
Aedes (*house*); edifice, edify.
Aequus (*level*); equal, equation, adequate, equity, equivocate, equinox.
Aestimo (*I value*); estimate, esteem, aim.
Aestus (*tide*); estuary.
Aeternus (*of endless duration*); eternity.
Aevum (*age*); coeval, primeval.
Ager (*field*); agriculture, agrarian.
Agger (*heap*); exaggerate.
Ago (*I set in motion, drive, do*); agent, act, agile, agitate.
Alacer (*brisk*); alacrity.
Alius (*other*), alter (*other of two*); alien, alter, alternate.
Alo (*I nourish*); alimony, aliment.
Altus (*high, deep*); altitude, exalt.
Ambitio (*courting favour*); ambition.
Ambulo (*I walk*); amble, somnambulist,
Amo (*I love*), amicus (*friend*), amor (*love*); amour, amorous, amicable, amiable.
Amoenus (*pleasant*; amenity.
Amplus (*large*); ample, amplify.
Ango (*I choke*); anxius, anxious, anxiety, anguish, anger.
Angulus (*corner, bend*); angle.
Anima (*breath*), animus (*mind*); animate, animal, magnanimous.
Annulus (*ring*); annular.
Annus (*year*); annual, anniversary.
Anus (*old woman*); anile.
Aperio (*I open*); April, aperient.
Apis (*bee*); apiary.
Appello (*I call*); appellation, appeal.
Aptus (*fitted*); apto (*I fit*); adapt, apt.
Aqua (*water*); aqueous, aqueduct.
Arbiter (*umpire*); arbitrate.
Arbor (*tree*); arbour.
Arcus (*bow*); arc, arch.
Ardeo (*I burn*); ardent, arson.
Arduus (*steep*); arduous.
Arguo (*I prove*); argue, argument.
Aridus (*dry*); arid, aridity.
Arma (*fittings*); arms, armour.
Aro (*I plough*); arable.
Ars (*skill*); art, artist, artifice.
Artus (*joint*), articulus (*little joint or fastening*); articulate, article.
Asinus (*ass*); asinine.
Asper (*rough*); exasperate.
Audax (*bold*); audacious, audacity.
Audio (*I hear*); audience, audible.
Augeo (*I increase*); auction, author.
Auris (*ear*); aurist, auricular.
Aurum (*gold*); auriferous.
Auspex (*one who takes omens from birds*); auspicious.
Auxilium (*help*); auxiliary.
Avarus (*greedy*); avarice, avaricious.
Avidus (*eager*); avidity.
Avis (*bird*); aviary.
Barba (*beard*); barb, barber.
Beatus (*blessed*); beatitude.
Bellum (*war*); belligerent, rebel.
Bene (*well*); benediction, benefit.
Benignus (*kind*); benign.
Bestia (*beast*); beast, bestial.
Bini (*two by two*); binary, combine.
Bis (*twice*); bissextile, bisect.
Brevis (*short*); brief, brevity.
Caballus (*horse*); cavalry.
Cado, *sup.* casum (*I fall*); cadence, ac-cident, oc-casion, casual.
Caedo, caesum (*I cut*); suicide, incision, concise.
Calculus (*pebble*); calculate.
Calx; chalk, calcine.
Callus (*hard skin*) callosus; callous.
Campus (*plain*); camp, encamp.
Candeo (*I burn or shine*), candidus (*white*); candid, incendiary, candle, candour.
Canis (*dog*); canine.
Canna (*reed*); canal, channel.
Canto (*I sing*); chant, incantation.
Capillus (*hair*); capillary.
Capio (*I take*), captus (*taken*); captive, capacity, accept, recipient.
Caput (*head*); cape, capital, captain, chapter, precipitate.
Carbo (*coal*); carbon; carboniferous.
Carcer (*prison*); incarcerate.
Cardo (*hinge*); cardinal.
Carmen (*song*); charm.
Caro, carnis (*flesh*); carnal, incarnate, charnel-house, carnival.
Carus (*dear*); charity.
Castigo (*restrain*); castigate, chastise.
Castus (*pure*); chaste.
Casus (*falling*); case, casual.
Causa; cause; excuse, accuse.
Caveo (*I take care*); caution.
Cavus (*hollow*); cave, excavate.
Cedo (*I go*); cede, precede, cession.
Celeber (*frequented*); celebrate.
Celer (*quick*); celerity.
Celo (*I hide*); conceal.
Censeo (*I judge*); censor, censure.
Centum (*hundred*); cent, century.
Centrum; centre, concentrate.
Cerno, cretum (*I distinguish*); discern, discreet, secret.
Certus (*resolved*); certain, certify.
Cesso (*I loiter*); cease, cessation.
Charta (*paper*); chart, charter, cartoon.
Cingo (*I gird*); cincture, succinct.
Circum (*round*), circus (*a circle*); circle, circulate, circuit.
Cito (*I rouse*); citation, excite.

* In most cases only a few samples of the English derivatives are given.

Civis (*citizen*); civil, civic, city.
Clamo (*I shout*); claim, clamour.
Clarus (*bright*); clear, clarify.
Classis; class, classic.
Claudo (*I shut*); close, exclude.
Clemens (*mild*); clemency, inclement.
Clino (*I bend*); incline, declension.
Clivus (*sloping ground*); declivity.
Coelebs (*bachelor*); celibacy.
Coelum (*heaven*); celestial.
Cogito (*I think*); cogitate.
Cognosco (*I examine*); recognize.
Colo (*I till*); culture, cultivate, colony.
Color; colour.
Comes (*companion*); concomitant, count.
Commodus (*convenient*); commodious.
Communis; common, community.
Contra (*against*); counter, contrary.
Copia (*plenty*); copious.
Copulo (*I join together*); copulative.
Coquo (*I boil*); cook, decoction.
Cor, cordis, (*heart*); cordial, concord.
Corona; crown, coronation.
Corpus (*body*); corps, corpse, incorporate, corporeal, corpulent.
Cras (*to-morrow*); procrastinate.
Credo (*I believe*); creed, incredible, credit.
Creo; create.
Cresco (*I grow*); increase, crescent.
Crimen (*charge*); crime, criminal.
Crudus (*raw*) crudelis; cruel, crude.
Crux (*cross*); crusade, crucify.
Cubo, cumbo (*I lie*); succumb, recumbent.
Cubitus (*a bend, elbow*); cubit.
Culpa (*fault*); inculpate, culpable.
Cumulus (*heap*); accumulate.
Cupidus (*eager*); cupid, cupidity.
Cura (*care*); cure, curious, procure.
Curro, cursum (*I run*); concur, discursive, current, course.
Curvus (*bent*); curve.
Custodia (*guard*); custody.
Damno; damn, condemn.
Debeo, debitum (*I owe*); debt, debit.
Debilis (*weak*); debility.
Decem (*ten*); December, decimal.
Decens (*becoming*); decent, decorous.
Densus; dense, condense.
Dens (*tooth*); dentist, trident, indent.
Desidero (*I long for*); desire, desiderate.
Deus (*God*); deity, deify, deodand.
Dexter (*right*); dexterity.
Dico, dictum (*I say*); contradict, predict, diction, dictate.
Dies (*day*); diary, diurnal.
Digitus (*finger*); digit, digital.
Dignus (*worthy*); condign, dignity, deign.
Disco (*I learn*); disciple, discipline.
Divido; divide, division.
Divinus; divine, divination.
Do, datum (*I give*); dative, add, date.
Doceo (*I teach*); docile, doctor.
Dolor (*grief*), doleo (*I grieve*); dolorous, condole.
Domo (*I tame*); indomitable.
Domus (*house*); domestic, dome.
Dominus (*master*); dominate, domain.
Dono (*I present*); donation, condone.
Dormio (*I sleep*); dormant, dormitory.
Dubius (*doubtful*); doubt, dubious.
Duco, ductum (*I lead*), dux; conduct, duke, adduce.
Duo (*two*); dual, duet, duel.
Durus (*hard*); endure, durable.
Ebrius (*drunken*); ebriety, inebriate.
Edo (*I eat*); edible.
Ego (*I*); egotist.
Emo (*I buy*); redeem, exempt.
Eo, ivi, itum (*I go*); exit, initial.
Equus (*horse*), eques (*horseman*); equine, equerry, equitation.
Erro (*I wander*); err, error, erroneous, erratic, aberration.
Examino (*I weigh*); examine.
Exemplum; example, sample.
Exerceo; exercise.
Expedio (*I set free*); expedite, expedient.
Experior (*I try*); expert, experience.
Faber (*mechanic, engineer*); fabric.
Fabula (*little story*); fable, fabulous.
Facies (*make*); face, superficial.
Facilis (*easy*); facile, difficulty.
Facio (*I make, do*); fact, faction, affect, deficient, benefactor, perfect, feat.
Fallo (*I deceive*); false, fallible.
Fama (*report*); fame, infamous.
Familia; family, familiar.
Fans (*speaking*), fatum (*what is spoken*); infant, fate, fatal.
Fanum (*temple*); fane, profane.
Faveo; favour.
Febris; fever, febrile.
Felis (*cat*); feline.
Felix (*happy*); felicity
Femina (*woman*); feminine, effeminate.
Fendo (*I strike*); defend, fence.
Fero (*I bear*); fertile, infer; *part.* latus; dilate, translate.
Ferox; ferocious, ferocity.
Ferrum (*iron*); ferruginous.
Ferveo (*I boil*); fervent, fervid.
Festus (*solemn*); festive, feast.
Fides (*faith*), fido (*I trust*); fidelity, confide, perfidy, defy.
Figo, fixum (*I fasten*); fix, crucifix.
Filius (*son*); filial, affiliate.
Findo, fissum (*I cleave*); fissure.
Fingo (*I shape*); fiction, figure, feign.
Finis (*end*); final, confine, infinitive.
Firmus; firm, confirm, affirm.
Fiscus (*treasury*); fiscal, confiscate.
Flagro (*I burn*); flagrant.
Flamma; flame, inflammation.
Flo, flatum (*I blow*); inflate, flatulent.
Flecto (*I bend*); deflect, flexible.
Fligo (*I strike*); afflict, profligate.
Flos (*flower*); florid, flourish.
Fluo, fluxum (*I flow*), fluctus (*wave*); flux, influence, fluid.
Fodio, fossum (*I dig*); fosse, fossil.
Folium (*leaf*); foliage, trefoil.
Fons; fount, fountain.
Forma; form, reform, inform.
Formido (*fear*); formidable.
Fors, fortuna; fortune.
Fortis (*strong*); fortify, fortress.

Frango, fractum (*I break*); fragile, frail, infringe, infraction, fragment, fracture.
Frater (*brother*); fraternal, fratricide.
Fraus, fraudis; fraud.
Frigus (*cold*); frigid, refrigerate.
Frons; front, affront, frontispiece.
Fructus (*fruit*), fruor (*I enjoy*); fruit, fructify, fruition, frugal.
Frustra (*in vain*); frustrate.
Fugio (*I flee*); fugitive, refuge.
Fulgeo (*I lighten*); refulgent.
Fulmen (*thunderbolt*); fulminate.
Fumus (*smoke*); fumigate, fume.
Fundo (*I pour*); foundry, refund, confound, confuse.
Fundus (*bottom*); found, foundation.
Fungor (*I discharge*); function.
Funus; funeral.
Fur (*thief*) furtive.
Gelu (*ice*); gelid, congeal, jelly.
Gens (*race*), gigno (*root* gen-), *I beget*; genus (*kind*); gentile, generate, gender, degenerate, general, gentle.
Gero, gestum (*I bear*); gesture, suggest, belligerent.
Glacies (*ice*); glass, glacial, glazier.
Gloria; glory.
Gradus (*step*), gradior (*I walk*); grade, digression, transgress, aggression.
Grandis (*large*); grand, aggrandize.
Gratia; grace, gratuitous, gratis.
Gratus; grateful, gratitude.
Gravis (*heavy*); grave, grief.
Grex (*flock*); gregarious, congregate.
Guberno (*I pilot*); govern.
Habeo (*I have*); have, habit, prohibit.
Habito (*dwell*); habitation, inhabit.
Haereo (*I stick*); adhere, hesitate.
Haeres (*heir*); inherit, hereditary.
Halo (*I breathe*); exhale, inhale.
Haurio, haustum (*I draw*); exhaust.
Herba; herb, herbaceous.
Hibernus (*wintry*); hibernate.
Homo (*man*); human, homicide.
Honestus; honest.
Honor; honour, honorary.
Horreo (*I shudder*); horror, horrid, abhor.
Hortor; exhort.
Hortus (*garden*); horticulture.
Hospes (*guest*); hospitable, host.
Hostis (*enemy*); hostile.
Humeo (*I am wet*); humid, humour.
Humus (*ground*); exhume, humble.
Ignis (*fire*); ignite, igneous.
Ignoro; ignore, ignorant.
Imago; image, imagine.
Impero (*I command*); empire, imperious, imperative.
Indico (*I point*); indicate.
Inferus (*low*); inferior, infernal.
Ingenium (*talent*); ingenious.
Ingenuus (*native*); ingenuity.
Insula (*island*); insulate.
Integer (*whole*); integral, integrity.
Intelligo (*I perceive*); intelligent, intellect.
Invito; invite.
Ira (*anger*); ire, irate, irascible.
Irrito (*I provoke*); irritate.
Iterum (*again*); reiterate.
Iter, itineris (*journey*); itinerant.
Jaceo (*I lie down*); adjacent.
Jacio, jactum (*I throw*); eject, object, adjective, conjecture.
Jocus; joke, jocular.
Judex; judge, judicious, prejudice.
Jugum (*yoke*); conjugal, conjugate.
Jungo, junctum; join, joint, juncture, conjunction, injunction.
Juro (*I swear*); conjure, jury, perjury.
Jus (*justice*), justus (*just*); just, injury, jurisdiction.
Juvenis (*young*); juvenile, junior.
Labor; labour, laboratory.
Labor (*I slide*); lapse, collapse.
Lac (*milk*); lacteal, lactic.
Laedo, laesum (*I dash* or *hurt*); lesion, elide, collision.
Lapis (*stone*); lapidary, dilapidate.
Latus (*broad*); latitude.
Latus (*side*); lateral, equilateral.
Laus, laudis (*praise*); laud, laudable.
Lavo (*I wash*); lavatory, lave.
Laxus (*loose*); lax, relax.
Lego (*I depute*); legate, legacy.
Lego, lectum (*I gather*); collect, elect, lecture, college, legion.
Levis (*light*), levo (*I lift*); levity, alleviate, relieve, elevate.
Lex, legis (*law*); legal, legislate.
Liber (*free*); liberal, deliver.
Liber (*book*); library, libel.
Licet (*it is lawful*); licence, illicit.
Ligo (*I tie*); oblige, religion, league.
Limes (*boundary*); limit.
Linea; line, lineal.
Lingua (*tongue*); linguist, language.
Linquo, lictum (*I leave*); relinquish, relict.
Liquor, liquidus; liquid, liquefy.
Litera; letter, literal, illiterate.
Locus (*place*); locate, local, locomotion.
Longus; long, longitude, elongate.
Loquor (*I speak*), loquax; elocution, loquacious, colloquy, eloquent.
Lucrum (*gain*); lucrative, lucre.
Ludo, lusum (*I play*); elude, prelude, illusion, ludicrous.
Lumen (*light*); luminous, illuminate.
Luna (*moon*); lunar, lunatic.
Luo (*I wash*); dilute, ablution.
Lustrum (*purification*); lustre, illustrate.
Lux (*light*); lucid, elucidate.
Magister; magistrate, master.
Magnus (*great*), major (*greater*); magnitude, majesty, mayor.
Malus (*bad*); malice, maltreat, malady.
Mamma (*breast*); mamma, mammalia.
Mando (*commit, enjoin*); mandate, commend.
Maneo, mansum (*I remain*); mansion, remain, remnant, permanent.
Manus (*hand*); manual, manufactory, manuscript, maintain, manacle, emancipate, manumit.
Mare (*sea*); marine, mariner.
Mars; martial.
Mater (*mother*); maternal, matricide, matron, matrimony.

Materia (*timber, stuff*) ; matter, material.
Maturus (*ripe*) ; mature, premature.
Medeor (*I heal*) ; remedy, medicine.
Medius (*middle*) ; mediator, immediate.
Melior (*better*) ; ameliorate.
Memor (*mindful*), memini (*I remember*) ; remember, memory, commemorate.
Mendax (*lying*) ; mendacious.
Mendicus (*beggar*) ; mendicant.
Mendum (*fault*) ; mend, emendation.
Mens, mentis (*mind*) ; mental, vehement.
Mereo (*I deserve*) ; merit.
Mergo (*I plunge*) ; immerse emergency.
Merx (*wares*) ; merchant, market.
Metior, mensus sum (*I measure*) ; immense, mensuration, measure.
Miles (*soldier*) ; military, militate.
Mille (*thousand*) mile, million.
Minister (*servant*) ; minister, ministry.
Minor (*less*), minuo (*I lessen*) ; diminish, minority, minute.
Miror (*I admire*) ; admire, miracle.
Misceo, mixtum (*I mix*) ; miscellany, promiscuous.
Miser (*wretched*) ; miser, misery.
Mitto, missum (*I send*) ; admit, permit, promise, mission, missile.
Modus (*measure*) ; mode, mood, model, moderate, modest, modulation.
Mola ; mill, meal, molar, immolate, emolument (*the miller's perquisite*).
Mollis (*soft*) ; emollient, mollify.
Moneo (*I warn*) ; admonish, monument, monster, monitor.
Mons ; mount, mountain, surmount, promontory.
Monstro (*I show*) ; demonstrate.
Morbus (*disease*) ; morbific, morbid.
Mordeo, morsum (*I bite*) ; remorse, morsel.
Mors, mortis (*death*) ; mortal, mortuary.
Mos, moris (*custom*) ; moral.
Moveo, motum (*I move*), mobilis ; move, motive, moment, mobility, emotion.
Multus (*many*) ; multitude, multiple.
Munio (*I fortify*) ; munition, muniment.
Munus (*gift, share*) ; remunerate, immunity.
Murus (*wall*) ; mural, intramural.
Musa (*muse*) ; music, amuse, museum.
Muto (*I change*) ; mutable, commute.
Narro ; narrate, narrative.
Nascor, natus sum (*I am born*) ; nascent, native, nation, cognate, nature.
Navis (*ship*) ; naval, navigate, navy.
Nauta (*sailor*) ; nautical, nautilus.
Necto, nexum (*I tie*) ; connect, annex.
Nego (*I deny*) ; negation, renegade.
Negotium (*business*) ; negotiate.
Nervus (*string*) ; nerve, enervate.
Neuter (*not either*) ; neuter, neutral.
Niger (*black*) ; negro.
Nihil (*nothing*) ; annihilate.
Noceo (*I hurt*) ; innocent, noxious.
No-sco, notum (*I know*) ; no-men (*name*), nobilis (*noble*) ; noun, name, nominal, noble, ignominy, note, notion.
Non (*not*) ; non-entity, non-age.
Norma (*rule*) ; normal, enormous.
Novem (*nine*) : November.
Novus (*new*) ; novel, renovate, novice.
Nox (*night*) ; nocturnal, equinox.
Nubo (*I marry*) ; nuptial, connubial.
Nudus (*naked*) ; nude, denude.
Nullus (*none*) ; nullity, annul.
Numerus (*number*) ; numeral, enumerate.
Nuntio ; announce, renounce.
Nutrio (*I nourish*) ; nutritious.
Oblivio (from liv-idus) ; oblivion.
Occupo (*I lay hold of*) ; occupy, occupation.
Octo (*eight*) ; octave, October.
Oculus (*eye, bud*) ; ocular, oculist.
Odium (*hatred*) ; odious, odium.
Odor (*smell*) ; odour, odorous.
Officium (*duty*) ; office, officious.
Omen ; ominous, abominate.
Omnis (*all*) ; omnipotent, omnibus.
Onus, oneris (*load*) ; onerous, exonerate.
Opinor (*I think*) ; opine, opinion.
Opto (*I desire*) ; option, adopt.
Opus, operis (*work*) ; operate.
Orbis (*circle*) ; orbit, exorbitant.
Ordo (*order*) ; ordain, ordinary.
Orior, ortus (*I rise*) ; origin, abortive.
Oro (*I speak*) ; orator, adore.
Os, oris (*mouth*) ; oral.
Osculor (*I kiss*) ; oscillate.
Ovum (*egg*) ; oviparous, oval.
Pagus (*village*) ; pagan, peasant.
Pallium (*cloak*) ; pall, palliate.
Palpo (*I stroke*) ; palpable, palpitate,
Palus (*stake*) ; pale, palisade, impale.
Pando, pansum and passum (*I spread*) ; expand, expanse, compass.
Par (*equal*) ; peer, compare.
Pareo (*I appear*) ; apparent.
Pario (*I bring forth*) ; parent, viviparous.
Paro (*I put, prepare*) ; repair, compare.
Pars (*part*) ; partition, party, particle, participle, parse, particular.
Pasco, pastum (*I feed*) ; pasture, pastor.
Pater (*father*) ; paternal, patron, patrimony, patrician.
Patria (*country*) ; patriot, expatriate.
Patior, passus (*I suffer*) ; patient, passion.
Pauper (*poor*) ; pauper, poverty.
Pax, pacis (*peace*) : pacific.
Pectus (*breast*) ; pectoral, expectorate.
Pecunia (*money*) ; pecuniary.
Pello (*I drive*) ; compel, repulse, pulse.
Pendeo (*I hang*) ; pendo, pensum (*I hang* or *weigh*) ; depend, pension, recompense, perpendicular.
Penetro (*I pierce*) ; penetrate.
Perdo (*I lose*) ; perdition.
Persona (*mask*) ; person.
Pes, pedis (*foot*) ; pedal, pedestrian, impede, expedite, biped.
Pestis (*plague*) ; pest, pestilence.
Peto, petitum (*ask, seek*) ; petition, compete, repeat, appetite.
Pingo, pictum (*paint*) ; depict, picture.
Pilo (*I steal*) ; pillage, compile.
Pius (*dutiful*) ; pious, piety, pity.
Placeo (*I please*) ; placid, pleasant.
Planta ; plant, plantation.
Planus (*level*) ; plane, plain.
Plaudo (*I clap*) ; applaud, plausible.

Plebs (*commonalty*); plebeian.
Plecto (*I weave*); complex, perplex.
Pleo (*I fill*); plenus (*full*); plenary, complete, replete, supply.
Plico (*I fold*); apply, comply, duplicity, double, complex, pliable.
Ploro (*I weep*); deplore, explore.
Plumbum (*lead*); plumber, plummet.
Plus, pluris (*more*); plural, surplus.
Pœna (*fine*), punio (*punish*); penal, punitive, repent, penance, penitent.
Polio; polish, polite.
Pondus (*weight*); pound, ponder.
Pono, positum (*I place*); deposit, compound, position. *Pose* from *pausare* (Skeat, *E.D.*)
Populus (*people*); popular, publish.
Porta (*door*); portal, portico, porthole.
Porto (*I carry*); export, important.
Portus (*harbour*); port.
Possum (*I can*); possible, potent.
Post (*after*); posterity.
Præda (*plunder*) predatory, prey.
Precor (*I pray*); deprecate, precarious.
Prehendo (*I grasp*); apprehend, comprehend.
Premo, pressum (*I press*); express.
Primus (*first*); primeval, primrose.
Princeps (*prince*); principal.
Privo (*I deprive*); deprive, private.
Probo (*I make good*); prove, probable, reprobate.
Probus (*honest, good*); probity.
Prope (*near*), proximus (*nearest*); propinquity, proximate.
Proprius (*one's own*); property, propriety.
Pudor (*shame*), pudet; impudent.
Puer (*boy*); puerile.
Pugno (*I fight*); pugnacious, impugn.
Pungo, punctum (*I prick*); pungent, puncture, expunge, point.
Purgo (*I cleanse*); purge, purgatory.
Purus; pure, purify.
Puto (*I cut, calculate, think*); amputate, compute, count, depute.
Quæro, quæsitum (*I seek*); question, inquire, query, exquisite.
Qualis (*of which kind*); quality, qualify.
Quantus (*how great*); quantity
Quatio, quassum, cutio, cussum (*I shake*); quash, percussion, discuss.
Quartus (*fourth*), quadra (*square*), quart, quarter, quadrant, quadratic.
Queror (*I complain*); querulous.
Quies (*rest*); quiet, acquiesce.
Radius (*ray*); radius, radiate.
Radix (*root*); radical, eradicate.
Rado, rasum (*I scrape*); erase, razor.
Rapio (*I snatch*); rapid, rapture, rapine, rapacious, ravish, ravage.
Rarus (*thin*); rare, rarefy.
Ratio (*reckoning*); reason, rational.
Ratus (*reckoned*); ratify, rate.
Rego (*I make straight*); regular, direct, regent, regiment, rector, rectify.
Rex (*king*); regal, regicide.
Regnum; reign, regnant.
Repo (*I creep*); reptile, surreptitious.
Res (*thing*); real, republic.
Rideo, risum (*I laugh*); deride, risible.
Rigeo (*I am stiff*); rigid, rigour.
Ritus; rite, ritual.
Rivus (*brook*), rivalis (*having the same brook in common*); river, rival, derive, rivulet.
Robur (*oak, strength*); robust, corroborate.
Rodo, rosum (*I gnaw*); corrode, corrosion.
Rogo (*I ask*); arrogate, prorogue.
Rota (*wheel*); rotate, rotary.
Rotundus; round, rotund.
Rudis (*untaught*); rude, erudite.
Rumpo, ruptum (*I break*); rupture, eruption, corrupt, bankrupt.
Ruo (*I rush*); ruin.
Rus, ruris (*country*); rustic, rural.
Sacer (*sacred*), sacerdos (*priest*); sacred, sacrifice, sacerdotal.
Sagax (*knowing*); sage, sagacious, presage.
Sal; salt, saline, salary.
Salio, saltum, sultum (*I leap*); salient, assail, assault, salmon (*the leaping fish*), insult.
Salus, salutis (*safety*); salute, salutary.
Salvus (*safe*); salvation, saviour.
Sanctus (*holy*); saint, sanctify.
Sanguis (*blood*); sanguinary.
Sano (*I make sound*); sanative, sanatory.
Sanus (*sound*); sane, sanity, sanitary.
Sapio (*I taste, am wise*), sapor (*taste*); savour, sapient, insipid.
Satis (*enough*), satur (*full*), satio (*I fill*); satiate, saturate, satisfy.
Scando (*I climb*); scan, ascend, descend.
Scindo, scissum (*I split*); rescind, scissors.
Scio (*I know*); science, prescience, omniscience, conscious.
Scribo, scriptum (*I write*); scribe, describe, scripture, postscript.
Scrutor (*I examine*); scrutiny.
Seco, sectum (*I cut*); sect, section, dissect, segment, secant.
Sedeo, sessum (*I sit*), sido (*I set*); session, sedentary, sediment, possess, subside, assiduous, consider.
Senex (*old-man*); senile, senate.
Sentio (*I feel, think*), sensus (*feeling*); scent, sentence, assent, sense.
Sepelio (*I bury*); sepulture, sepulchre.
Septem (*seven*); September, septennial.
Sequor, secutus (*I follow*), secundus (*following*); sequence, sequel, consequent, persecute, second.
Sero, sertum (*I set in a row*); insert, exert, desert, series, sermon.
Semen (*seed*); seminary, disseminate.
Servus (*slave*), servio (*I serve*), servo (*I watch or preserve*); serf, servile, servant, preserve, deserve.
Sidus (*star*); sidereal.
Signum; sign, signal, resign.
Sileo (*I am silent*); silent, silence.
Similis (*like*); similar, assimilate, resemble, simulate.
Singuli (*one by one*); single, singular.
Sisto (*I stop, I stand*); consist, insist.
Socius (*companion*); social, society.
Sol (*sun*); solar, solstice.
Solidus; solid, solder.
Solor; con-sole, solace.
Solus (*alone*); solitude, desolate.

Solvo, solutum (*I loosen*) ; solve, solution.
Sonus; sound, sonorous, consonant
Spargo, sparsum (*I strew*); sparse, disperse.
Spatium; space, spacious, expatiate.
Specio, spectum (*I look*), species (*appearance, kind*) ; special, respect, spectator, despise, suspicion.
Spero (*I hope*) ; despair, desperate.
Spiro (*I breathe*), spiritus (*breath*) ; spirit, aspire, conspire.
Splendeo (*I shine*) ; splendour. splendid.
Spondeo, sponsum (*I promise*) ; sponsor, respond, despond.
Sterno, stratum (*I throw down*); prostrate, consternation.
Stirps (*root*); extirpate.
Sto, statum (*I stand*) ; station, stature, stable, distant, obstacle. armistice, substance.
Statuo (*I set up*) ; statue, statute.
Stringo, strictum (*I tighten*) ; stringent, strain, strict, strait.
Struo, structum (*I pile up*) ; construct, destroy, construe.
Studium (*zeal*) ; study.
Stupeo (*I am amazed*) ; stupid.
Suadeo (*I advise*) ; suasion, persuade.
Sum (*I am*), root *es*, ens (*being*) ; entity, present. Futurus (*about to be*) ; future.
Summus (*highest*) ; sum, summit.
Sumo, sumptum (*I take*); assume, consume, consumption.
Super (*above*) ; superior, supreme.
Surgo (*I rise*) ; surge, resurrection.
Taceo (*I am silent*) ; tacit, taciturn.
Tango, tactum (*I touch*): tact, contact, contagion, contiguous, attain, attach.
Tardus (*slow*) ; retard, tardy.
Tego, tectum (*I cover*) : protect, integument.
Temno (*I despise*) ; contemn.
Tempero (*I moderate*) ; temperate, temper.
Templum; temple, contemplate.
Tempus (*time*) ; temporal, tense.
Tendo, tensum (*I stretch*); contend, intend, tense, tension.
Teneo, tentum (*I hold*) ; tenant, tenacious, tenour, retain, content, retinue, continuous.
Tento *or* tempto (*I try*) ; tempt. attempt.
Terminus (*boundary*) ; term, terminate.
Tero, tritum (*I rub*) ; trite, contrition.
Terra (*earth*); terrestrial, terrene, inter, terrier, terrace.
Terreo (*I frighten*); terrify, terror, deter.
Testis (*witness*) ; testify, testimony, attest, detest, protest.
Texo, textum (*I weave*) ; text, context, texture, textile.
Timeo (*I fear*) ; timid.
Torqueo, tortum (*I twist*) ; torsion, contort, torture, torment.
Torreo, tostum (*I parch*) ; torrid. toast.
Totus (*whole*) ; total.
Traho, tractum (*I draw*) ; treat, tract, attract.
Tremo (*I tremble*) ; tremour, tremendous.
Tres, tria (*three*) ; trefoil, trident, trinity.
Tribuo (*I assign*) ; tribute.
Tribus ; tribe. tribune.
Trudo, trusum (*I thrust*) ; extrude, intrusion.
Tueor (*I protect*) ; tuition, tutor.
Tumeo (*I swell*) ; tumid, tumult.
Tundo, tusum (*I thump*) ; contusion.
Turba (*mob*) ; turbulent, turbid.
Ultra (*beyond*), ulterior (*further*), ultimus (*furthest*) ; ulterior. ultimate, penult
Umbra (*shade*) ; umbrage, umbrella.
Uncia (*a twelfth part*) ; ounce, inch, uncial
Unguo, unctum (*I anoint*) ; unguent, ointment, unction.
Unda (*wave*) ; abound, redound, abundant, inundate, undulate.
Unus (*one*) ; union, unit, triune, uniform, universe, unique.
Urbs (*city*) ; urban, suburb.
Urgeo (*I press*) ; urge, urgent.
Uro. ustum (*I burn*) ; combustion.
Utor, usus (*I use*) ; use. utility, usury.
Vaco (*I am unoccupied*) ; vacant, vacation, vacate, vacuum, evacuate.
Vagor (*I wander*), vagus (*wandering*) ; vague, vagrant, vagabond.
Valeo (*I am strong*) ; valid, valour, value, avail, prevail.
Vanus (*empty*) ; vain, vanity.
Vapor (*steam*) ; vapour, evaporate.
Veho, vectum (*I carry*) ; convey, convex, inveigh, vehicle.
Vello, vulsum (*I pluck*) ; convulse, revulsion.
Velum (*covering*) ; veil, reveal, develop.
Vendo (*I sell*) ; vend, venal.
Veneror (*I worship*) ; venerate, revere.
Venio, ventum (*I come*) ; convene, venture, convent, prevent, revenue, convenient, covenant.
Ventus (*wind*) ; ventilate.
Verbum (*word*) ; verb, verbal. proverb.
Verto, versum (*I turn*) ; verse, version, convert, divorce, adverse, advertise, universe, vortex, vertical.
Verus (*true*) ; verity, verify, aver.
Vestis (*garment*) ; vest, vesture, vestry.
Vetus (*old*) ; inveterate, veteran.
Via (*road*) ; deviate, pervious, trivial.
Vicis (*change*) ; vicissitude, vicar.
Video, visum (*I see*) ; visible, vision, provide, revise, visage, prudence, providence, survey, envy.
Vilis (*cheap*) ; vile, vilify.
Vinco, victum (*I conquer*) : victor, vanquish, victim, convince, convict.
Vir (*man*), virtus (*manliness*) ; virtue, virago, triumvir, virile.
Vis (*force*) ; violent.
Vita (*life*) ; vital.
Vitium (*fault*) ; vice, vicious, vitiate.
Vivo, victum (*I live*) ; revive, vivify, vivacious, victuals.
Voco (*I call*), vox (*voice*) ; voice, vocal, vocation, invocate, convoke, vowel.
Volo (*I will*) : voluntary, benevolent, volition.
Volvo, volutum (*I roll*) ; revolve, volume, revolution, voluble.
Voro (*I devour*) ; voracious, devour.
Voveo, votum (*I vow*) ; vote, votive, votary, devote, devout.
Vulgus (*common people*) ; vulgar, divulge.
Vulnus (*wound*) ; vulnerable.

EXERCISES.

I. Common Nouns and Proper Nouns.

Preliminary Lesson.—Definition of a Noun. Distinction between Common Nouns and Proper Nouns (§§ 25—31).

Exercise 1. Say (or write) ten common nouns which are the names of each of the following things :—

1. Animals. 2. Trees and flowers. 3. Things that you see in the room. 4. Things to eat, to wear, or to play with. 5. Some stuff or material.

Say (or write) ten proper nouns which are names of

1. Boys or girls. 2. Towns. 3. Countries. 4. Rivers or mountains. 5. Dogs or horses. 6. Ships. 7. Houses or parks. 8. Months and days.

Exercise 2. Write the Common Nouns in the following sentences in one list, and the Proper Nouns in another :—

John likes school. My brother has a horse called Dobbin. The boys were reading about the battle of Agincourt. Bellerophon rode a winged horse called Pegasus. My uncle is the captain of the 'Bellerophon.' Lie down, Fido. The traveller ascended Helvellyn. March is a cold month. The soldiers had a weary march. She brought me a bunch of may. I like May better than June. King Arthur's sword was called Excalibur. We saw an eclipse of the sun. The horse that won the race was Eclipse. Petrels and swallows are birds. That cow has lost a horn. He sailed round Cape Horn in the 'Petrel.'

"You may avoid that too with an 'if'" (*Shaksp.*). "Tellest thou me of ifs?" He wants to know the why and the wherefore of everything.

II. Singular and Plural.

Preliminary Lesson.—Definition of Number. Modes of forming the plural (§§ 41, &c.).

Exercise 3. A. Write the plural of each of the following nouns :—

Boot. Sheaf. Chimney. Enemy. Valley. Duty. Osprey. Calf. Echo. Cargo. Negro. Sky. Dray. Convoy. Buoy. Victory. Loaf. Wife.

Leaf. Stuff. Scarf. Speech. Ass. Grass. Thrush. Grotto. Potato. Crutch. Day. Army. Wife. Journey. Beauty. Way. Coach. Gas Staff. Puff. Life. Pony. Wharf. Hoof. Man. Box. Tooth. Trick. Brother. Thief. Toy.

B. Write the singular of each of the following nouns :—

Arches. Trespasses. Mice. Lice. Feet. Halves. Staves. Waves. Pies. Lies. Cries. Flies. Bruises. Trees. Kine. Oxen. Children. Bees. Noses. Nooses. Pence. Marquises. Heroes. Boys. Speeches Beeches. Dies. Ties. Taxes. Bruises. Patches. Graves.

III. Capital Letters.

Preliminary Lesson.—Use of capital letters (§ 4, *note*).

Exercise 4. Copy out the following examples two or three times and then write them from dictation :—

The mayors of provincial towns. The Lord Mayor. The barristers and solicitors. The Solicitor-General. A court of justice. The Lord Chief Justice. I speak of lords and commoners. The Lords and Commons. The princes and dukes. The Prince of Wales. The Duke of Bedford. The recorder of these events. The Recorder of Carlisle. The office of sheriff. Mr. Sheriff Johnson. The house of mourning. The House of Commons. Our common supplications. The Book of Common Prayer. An object in the middle distance. A student of the Middle Temple. The first chapter. James the First. The prescription of the doctor. The life of Dr. Johnson. The clemency of the conqueror. William the Conqueror. We have a good hope through grace. The Cape of Good Hope. The evangelist Matthew. St. John the Evangelist. The death of the emperor. O Death, where is thy sting?

IV. Verbs, Sentences.

Preliminary Lesson.—Definition of Verb, Subject, Predicate, Sentence. Use of the Nominative Case. Agreement of the verb with its subject (§§ 135, &c., 294).

Exercise 5. Point out the subject and the verb in each of the following sentences, and explain their functions, that is, what they do in the sentence. Thus, "Boys play." 'Boys' is the *subject*, because it stands for that about which we tell something by means of the verb. It is in the nominative case. 'Play' is a verb; it tells us something about *boys*.*

Birds fly. John works. Cats scratch. Snow falls. Soldiers fight. Stars shine. Geese cackle. Horses neigh. Up went the rocket. Down came the rain. In came William. Thus ends the tale. Then cometh the end. Here

* Not about the *subject*, because the subject of a sentence is only a *word*, and the verb tells us something, not about *a word*, but about *that for which the word stands*. Beware of confusion about this.

comes papa. Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight. Deep drank Lord Marmion of the wave.

Exercise 6. Put some verb or other with each of the following nouns, so as to make a sentence:—

Grass. John. Trees. Cows. The sun. Stars. The wind. Mary. The child. Dogs. Lions. Owls. Mice. Boys. The bird. Parsons. The candle. Horses. Water. Soldiers. Ships. Day. The leaves. Puss. Rain.

The following are verbs of which you can make use:—

Sail. Fight. Swim. Sink. Shine. Dawn. Howl. Shriek. Play. Squeal. Grow. Fall. Work. Graze. Twinkle. Blow. Run. Squeak. Roar. Preach. Cry. Sing. Kick. Scratch.

Put a subject of the proper number before each of the following verbs:—

Shine. Chatter. Plays. Sing. Sings. Howl. Scratches. Run. Flies. Appear. Arrive. Sinks. Float. Dances. Glitters. Growl. Works. Pray. Break. Speaks.

V. The Possessive Case.

Preliminary Lesson.—Formation and use of the Possessive Case (§§ 54, &c.).

Exercise 6*b*. Draw one line under those nouns in the following sentences which are in the nominative case plural; two lines under those which are in the possessive case singular; and three lines under those which are in the possessive case plural; and show in each instance to what other noun the noun in the possessive case is attached. This may be done by placing the same numeral over each,

1 1 2 2

as "I found Henry's book and William's slate."

John's hands are dirty. Men's lives are short. Hens' eggs are white. The children's voices are loud. The horses ate the oxen's food. The keeper caught the vixen's cubs. Goats' milk is wholesome. A cheese was made from the goat's milk. The bird's leg was broken. The birds have built nests in the farmer's barn. The farmers' barns are full of corn. The bakers' shops were shut. The baker's bread was spoilt. The masters heard the boys' lessons. The boys tore the master's book. The boy taxed the masters' patience. The men heard of their wives' danger. The kittens are in Mary's lap. The boy pulled the kitten's tail. Peter's wife's mother lay sick of a fever. John's day's work is nearly finished. Tom's horse's leg was broken. I bought this paper at the stationer's. He lodges at the baker's. We went to St. Paul's this morning.

In the following sentences insert a possessive case where there is a blank:—

The boys tore —— frocks. Tailors make —— clothes. I found —— ball. We bought this at —— shop. Weasels suck —— eggs. The cushion is

stuffed with —— feathers. We heard —— voices. Show me —— letter. Where did you buy these —— tools? —— cries were heard. Who found —— parasol? This shoemaker makes —— boots. Who heard —— lessons? Johnnie broke —— playthings. Mary tore —— book.

Write down the possessive case, singular and plural, of the following nouns :—

Ox. Calf. Man. Brother. Child. Eagle. Lady. Boy. Baby. Goose. King. Donkey. Deaconess. Sheep. Deer. Fox.

VI. Transitive and Intransitive Verbs.

Preliminary Lesson.—Distinction between Transitive Verbs and Intransitive Verbs. The Object of a Verb. The Objective Case (§§ 138, 139).

Exercise 7. In the following sentences point out which nouns are subjects of verbs and which are objects of verbs. In each case explain the use of the Subject, as in Exercise 5, and explain the use of the Object as follows :—"'John struck the ball.' The word *ball* is the object of the verb, because it stands for that which is the object of the action denoted by the verb."

John touched Henry. Cats eat mice. Bakers make bread. A lion devoured a sheep. The boys waste time. The horse kicked the groom. The groom kicked the horse. The man broke his leg.

Exercise 8. Write out the following sentences, and draw one line under the transitive verbs, and two lines under the intransitive verbs :—

Men eat bread. Cats mew. Sheep eat grass. The sheep graze. The boys learn lessons. The boys play in the yard. The hound chased the hare. The dog barked. The butcher killed the pig. The pig squealed. The child screamed. The boy struck his brother.

Exercise 9. In the following examples put in an object where it is wanted to show what the action denoted by the verb is done to :—

The boy hates. Men pray. The parson preaches. Mary wrote. The dog howled. The dog bit. The horse carries. The horse neighs. The man desires. The girls dance. Birds build. Birds twitter. Mary died. Rain fell. The lightning struck. Clouds covered. The sun warms. The sun shines.

Exercise 10. Make a dozen sentences containing a subject, a transitive verb, and an object, and a dozen containing a subject and an intransitive verb.

VII. Verbs used transitively, intransitively, and reflectively.

Preliminary Lesson.—Verbs used (with a difference of meaning) 1. as transitive verbs; 2. as intransitive verbs; 3. as reflective verbs (§ 139).

Exercise 11. Write out the following sentences, and draw one line under the verbs that are used transitively, two lines under those that are used intransitively, and three under those that are used reflectively. A verb should be treated as a transitive verb used *reflectively* whenever a reflective pronoun can be supplied as an object so as to make the sense more complete, as "I always wash [myself] with cold water"; "The visitors withdrew [themselves]":—

The travellers started yesterday. The hunter started a hare. The man spoke French. The man spoke well. The boys play in the garden. The girl plays the piano. The ship sank. The man sank his fortune in the undertaking. The judge tried the prisoner. The thief tried the lock. The boy tried hard. The traveller returned yesterday. The merchant returned the goods. The old man slipped on the ice. He slipped a shilling into my hand. The audience hooted the speaker. Owls hoot. He has twisted his ankle. The snake twists and turns about. The earth turns round. He turned the man out of the room. He gave up the game. You had better give in. The town surrendered. The governor surrendered the town. We all rejoiced at his success. His safe return rejoiced us all. The barber shaved me yesterday. He has not shaved this morning. I withdrew my claim. The deputation withdrew. Take this chair. Take yourself off. Get your umbrella. Get thee gone. Get up. Get out of my way. He made a noise. He made off as fast as he could. He cut his finger. He cut away pretty quickly. The singer delighted the audience. I delight to hear him.

Exercise 12. Find a dozen other verbs that may be used both transitively and intransitively, and six that may be used reflectively without being followed by a reflective pronoun, and make sentences to illustrate their use.

VIII. Words used both as Nouns and as Verbs.

Preliminary Lesson.—Study the meaning and use of the word *iron*, in such sentences as '*Iron* is heavy' and 'The women *iron* the shirts.'

Exercise 13. Take the words in italics in the following sentences, and say in each case whether the word is a noun (because it is the *name* of something), or a verb (because it *tells* you what some person or thing does):—

He took a pinch of *snuff*. John *snuffs* the candle. The *furrows* are not straight. Grief *furrows* the brow. The maid *milks* the cow. The children drink *milk*. *Steam* comes out of the kettle. The cook *steams* the meat. The *irons* are hot. The laundress *irons* the shirts. The passengers *crowd* the

deck. A *crowd* filled the *square*. She *decks* herself with *ornaments*. We *squared* accounts. He *ornaments* the table with plate.

Exercise 14. Make sentences in which the following words are used :—1, as *nouns* ; 2, as *verbs*.

Fly. Form. Beat. Work. Name. Whip. Pinch. Seat. Dig. Pocket. Cover. Shoe. Pen. Task. Hook. Eye.

Exercise 15. Find twenty more words which may be used either as nouns or as verbs.

IX. The Personal Pronouns.

Preliminary Lesson.—Forms and use of the Personal Pronouns, and of the Demonstrative Pronoun of the Third Person, Personal inflexions of verbs (§§ 96, &c., 177, 200).

Exercise 16.* Suppose John is speaking to Thomas, substitute the proper pronouns for their names in the following sentences, and the proper names for the pronouns :—

John saw Thomas in the garden. John's father has come home. Has Thomas's brother arrived? John's pony is lame. John has had John's dinner. John will lend Thomas John's knife. Will Thomas give John Thomas's stick? Thomas may help John. Thomas's brother is older than John's. Has Thomas had Thomas's dinner.

You have hurt me. Did I hurt you? You have spoilt my book. I saw your father yesterday. Thy friends are here. My sister will call upon your mother. Your brother has sent for me. Did I not tell thee so? Your book is not so pretty as mine. My father will go with you. Dost thou hear me? Your brother will accompany my cousin.

Exercise 17. Substitute pronouns for nouns wherever they are proper in the following sentences, and state what nouns the pronouns stand for :—

Mary has lost Mary's thimble. John's mother has sent John to school, where John will learn to read. The dog's master beat the dog with a stick because the dog bit the master's leg. When the boys have finished the boys' lessons, the boys will go out to play. John hurt John's hand. The horse fell down and broke the horse's leg. The children have not yet had the children's dinner. Birds build birds' nests in trees. The boys' father will soon send the boys to school. The cart turned over on the cart's side.

The master praised the boy because he was attentive. The boys have lost their ball. The horse ran away with his rider. Parents love their children. When the girl was old enough, her mother sent her to school. Jane has found her book. When the boys have learnt their lessons they must say them to the master. The men will be paid when they have finished their work. The girls have lost their needles ; they will never find them again. George, you said you had learnt your lessons.

* These exercises are very like some that have recently appeared elsewhere, and which in their turn resemble what appeared previously in the author's 'First Notions of Grammar.'

X. Pronouns as Subjects and Objects of Verbs.

Preliminary Lesson.—Inflexions of verbs to mark Person. Concord of Verb and Subject (§§ 177, 200, 294).

Exercise 18. Point out which pronouns in the following sentences are subjects of verbs, and which are objects, and explain their use in the same way as that of the nouns in Exercises 5 and 7. Also point out the pronouns which denote possession.

I admire him because he is brave. They will love you if you are good. We shall see you to-morrow. You will meet us there. I often see her at church. They left us yesterday. The boy has hurt her. He has torn her frock. We took them home. Look at this book, it is John's; I found it in the garden. Her mother has lost her senses. Her mother beat her. He knocked him down with his fist. The children left their hats in the garden; they must go and fetch them, or they will be spoilt by the rain. If you do not hold your tongue, I will send you away. His father loves him dearly. I love him, but he does not love me. Her brother was teasing her. I will arm me. I will lay me down. Get thee gone. I will bethink me. Bethink you of some expedient. Arm you against your other foes.

XI. Direct Object and Indirect Object.

Preliminary Lesson.—Difference between the Direct Object and the Indirect Object of a verb (§§ 58; 291, 4).

Exercise 19. Draw one line under those nouns and pronouns in the following sentences which are direct objects of verbs, and two lines under those which are indirect objects :—

John gave Thomas a kick. Will you lend me a shilling? I gave him a book. They met us in the street and gave us some apples. Pass me the salt. Hand that lady the bread. Hand that lady to her seat. He dealt the cards. He dealt me a hard blow. Send me a letter. Send me to him. I fetched him a box on the ears. Mary fetched the beer. Pour your neighbour out a glass of beer. The policeman took the man to prison. The kind woman took the poor man a loaf. Let every soldier hew him down a bough. He got him a wife. I will get me a new coat. Shall we go and kill us venison? We will buy you a watch. We will disguise us. We make us comforts of our losses. This will last you all the year.

Exercise 20. Find a dozen verbs which may have objects of each kind, and make sentences to illustrate their use.

XII. Conjugation of Verbs. Tense Forms of the Active Voice.

Preliminary Lesson.—Formation of all the tenses in the Indicative Mood of the Active Voice. Parts of which the compound tenses are made up (§§ 160–167, 200).

Exercise 21. Change the verbs in the following sentences into each of the other tenses of the Indicative Mood, Active Voice, successively; naming the tenses as you do so :—

A. Strong Verbs. He throws a stone. We draw water. You see the house. He gives me an apple. She strikes her brother. He breaks his word. He drinks some ale. The soldiers fight bravely. I hold the reins. The sun shines. The cock crew. He slew his foe. It lay on the ground. We took good care. We stood in the street. They ate some bread. He seethes the flesh.

B. Weak Verbs. She spills the water. The dog was barking. We crept into bed. The man knelt down. He bleeds to death. He tells a lie. They spent their money. You sold your horse. The servant sweeps the room. We met our friend at his house. I read many books.

XIII. Tense Forms of the Passive Voice.

Preliminary Lesson.—Formation of the various tenses of the Indicative Mood of the Passive Voice (§§ 143, 200).

Exercise 22. Change the verbs in the following sentences into each of the other tenses successively of the Indicative Mood in the Passive Voice; naming the tenses as you do so :—

A. Strong Verbs. A stone was thrown. The wine was drunk. We shall be struck. He was slain. The letter will be written. Money has been taken out of the till. Goods have been stolen. Kind words are spoken. The sheep will be shorn. Thou art chidden.

B. Weak Verbs. The wine was spilt. The sparrow is caught. The house will be built. The children are scolded by the nurse. The report is spread. Meat had been sold by the butchers. You are called.

XIV. Mutual Relation of the Active and Passive Voices.

Preliminary Lesson.—When an action is described by means of the Passive Voice instead of the Active, the object of the verb in the Active Voice becomes the subject of the verb in the Passive* (§ 142).

Exercise 23. Change all the following sentences so as to use passive verbs instead of active verbs. Thus for "The dog bit the cat," put "The cat was bitten by the dog": for "I am writing a letter" put "A letter is being written by me" :—

The cat killed the rat. John broke the window. That surprises me. This will please you. The men are drinking the beer. We have received a letter.

* Beware of the mistake of saying that the *subject* of the verb in the Active Voice becomes the *object* of the verb in the Passive Voice. A verb in the Passive Voice has no direct object. It does not cease, however, to be a *Transitive Verb*. All ordinary passive verbs are transitive. The *object of an action* need not be expressed by the *grammatical object of a verb*.

The boys have eaten the cake. They had not counted the cost. The men will have finished the work before night. The men will be carrying the hay to-morrow. We were gathering nuts in the wood. The servant had swept the room. The soldiers are defending the city. We love our parents The man has earned the reward. We shall refuse your request. My father built this house. Homer composed the Iliad. A shoemaker makes shoes. We heard the thunder. Mamma bought a bonnet. He has drunk up all the beer. Idleness will clothe a man with rags. Did that boy make your nose bleed? Who tore your book?

Exercise 24. Make a dozen sentences containing a transitive verb in the active voice, and then alter them as in the last exercise.

Exercise 25. Change all the following sentences so as to use active verbs instead of passive verbs in the same tense :—

The sparrow was caught by the boy. We were overtaken by a storm. A new house will be built by my brother. The children had been scolded by the nurse. The wine had been drunk by the butler. The door was opened by me. Too much was expected by them. The letter was written by us. Mice are caught by cats. Meat is sold by butchers. He was killed by the blow. The cake was being gobbled up by the greedy boys. I was being pushed by my neighbour. Has a new house been built by your uncle? By whom has your coat been torn?

Exercise 26. Make a dozen sentences containing a transitive verb in the passive voice, and then alter them as in the last exercise.

Exercise 27. Write out the following sentences, and draw one line under those verbs which are in the active voice, and two lines under those which are in the passive voice (§§ 143, 160) :—

Arrows are shot by the archers. The archers are shooting arrows. He is running. He is gone. He is spending all the money. The men are come. The town was taken by assault. The troops were being led across the river. The officer was leading the troops across the river.

I shall be blamed for this. I shall be travelling all night. We were travelling all day. The wine was being drunk. The men are drinking beer. The gardener has been mowing the lawn. The money will have been spent in vain. We are losing time. Time is being wasted.

XV. Gender of Nouns.

Preliminary Lesson.—Signification and formation of Genders (§§ 33—39).

Exercise 28. State the gender of each of the following nouns :—

Cow, horse, dog, man, girl, ship, house, Robert, Jane, London, Thames, goose, hen, cock, bird, sheep, pig, boar, fox, uncle, nephew, John, vixen, lass, ox, form, desk, tree, servant, footman, maid, boy, nursemaid, baby, slate, gander, elephant, tiger, lioness, Maria, France, Napoleon, cart, infant,

brother, lady, pen, lord, king, sovereign, queen, ruler, judge, author, cousin, sister, mother, aunt, box, speaker, William. The Victory. The Agamemnon. The Maria.

Exercise 29. Give the feminine nouns that correspond to the masculine nouns, and the masculine nouns that correspond to the feminine nouns in the following list :—

Nun. Daughter. Ram. Earl. Duchess. Doe. Boar. Bachelor. Girl. Sister. Drake. Bull. Hind. Aunt. Witch. Nephew. Lady. Sir. Buck. Hart. Empress. Votary. Mistress. Lass. Actor. Governess. Giant. Author. Caterer. Murderess.

Exercise 30. Write down 1. Ten masculine common nouns. 2. Ten masculine proper nouns. 3. Ten feminine common nouns. 4. Ten feminine proper nouns. 5. Ten neuter common nouns. 6. Ten neuter proper nouns. 7. Ten nouns of ambiguous or common gender.

XVI. Parsing.

Preliminary Lesson.—To parse a word you must state 1. to what part of speech, and to what subdivision of that part of speech it belongs; 2. what the function of the word is, that is, the kind of work that it does in the sentence; 3. the accidence of the word; 4. the construction of the word in the sentence.

Examples of Parsing.

"*John's brother has found a shilling.*"

John's is a Proper Noun of the Masculine Gender [because it is the name of a male person and is that person's own name*]. It is in the Singular Number, and in the Possessive Case depending on (or in the attributive relation to) the noun 'brother' [because it denotes that 'John' possesses something, namely 'brother'].

Brother is a Common Noun of the Masculine Gender [because it denotes a male person, and may denote any other of the same class]. It is in the Singular Number, and is in the Nominative Case because it is the subject of the verb 'has found' [that is, because it stands for the person about whom the verb tells something].

Has found is a Transitive Verb of the Strong Conjugation—(find, found, found). [It is a verb because it tells us some-

* When pupils have gained some readiness in parsing, and when parsing is written, such explanations as those in brackets may be omitted; but in oral work, and for beginners, they are of the utmost importance.

thing about John's brother, and it is transitive because it denotes an action which is done to some object.] It is in the Active Voice, Indicative Mood, Present Perfect Tense, and is in the Singular Number and the Third Person to agree with its subject 'brother.' It has 'shilling' for its object.

Shilling is a Common Noun of the Neuter Gender [because it is the name of something which is not a living being, and may be used for any other thing of the same class]. It is in the Singular Number, and is in the Objective Case because it is the object of the transitive verb 'has found' [that is, because it stands for that to which the action denoted by the verb is directed].

"*He will please me.*"

He is a Demonstrative Pronoun of the Third Person and Masculine Gender [because it stands for a male person who is neither the speaker nor the person spoken to] in the Singular Number, and in the Nominative Case because it is the subject of the verb 'will please' [that is, because it stands for the person about whom the verb tells something].

'**Will please**' is a Transitive Verb [because it denotes an action which is directed to an object], of the Weak Conjugation (please, pleased, pleased). It is in the Active Voice, Indicative Mood, Future Indefinite Tense, and is in the Singular Number and the Third Person to agree with its subject 'he.'

Me is a Personal Pronoun of the First Person and of Common* Gender. [It stands for the speaker without naming him, or her]. It is in the Singular Number, and in the Objective Case because it is the object of the transitive active verb 'will please.'

"*I shall be seen.*"

'**I**' is a Personal Pronoun of the First Person of common† (or ambiguous) gender. It is in the Singular Number, and is in the Nominative Case because it is the subject of the verb 'shall be seen' [that is, stands for the person about whom something is said by means of the verb].

'**Shall be seen**' is a Transitive Verb [because it denotes an action that is directed to an object], in the Passive Voice, Indicative Mood, Future Indefinite Tense, and in the Singular Number and First Person to agree with its subject 'I.'

"*Lend me a shilling.*"

'**Lend**' is a Transitive Verb [because it denotes an action which is done to something], in the Active Voice, Imperative

* Substitute *Masculine* or *Feminine*, if the context shows whether the speaker is a male or a female person.

† See last note.

Mood, Plural Number* and Second Person, to agree with its subject 'you' understood.

'Me' is a Personal Pronoun, &c. (see above), in the Objective Case, because it is the Indirect Object of the verb 'Lend.'

Exercise 31. Parse all the verbs, nouns, and pronouns in the following sentences, except those in italics :—

The hunters caught a hare. The hunters were chasing hares. The hare was being chased. The house was pulled down. The masons are building a house. Many new houses have been built. He was running away. They called her back. She gave me† a shilling. I lent the man† a pound. We have heard the news. You have lost the sight. John's sister has told me† the news. We saw Henry's cousin yesterday. Mary's frock was torn by the *dog*. The girl's frock will be mended. You will be overtaken by the *storm*. The men will soon have finished the work. She had been bitten by the *dog*. The cat has scratched her. Henry's father will give her† a new book. Hand me† the bread. Read the letter. Tell me † the news. Go thou and do likewise. Hear ye, Israel.‡ Get thee behind me. John,‡ hand me† the bread.

Exercise 32. Parse the nouns, pronouns, and verbs in Exercises 19, 21, 22, 23, 25, and 27.

XVII. Adjectives of Quality.

Preliminary Lesson.—Nature and use§ of a Qualitative Adjective (or Adjective of Quality); Attributive and predicative use of Adjectives (§§ 68, 72, 311).

Exercise 33. "*The girls wore smart bonnets.*" 'Smart' is an Adjective of Quality. It shows *of what sort* the 'bonnets' are. It is joined attributively to the noun 'bonnets.'

"*The girls' bonnets are smart.*" Here 'smart' is an Adjective of Quality joined predicatively to the noun 'bonnets.'

Pick out the Adjectives of Quality in the following sentences, and treat each of them in the same way as 'smart' in the above examples :—

He rides a black horse. The bird has white feathers. The bird's feathers are white. Idle boys hate lessons. Ripe fruit is wholesome. Tom's horse is brown. Rude boys are disagreeable. Dogs are faithful. Dogs are faithful

* 'You' is always a *grammatical* plural, even when it refers to *one* person. Of course, if the singular 'Thou' is expressed or understood, the verb is singular; but the subject which is usually understood is the plural 'you.'

† In parsing this word state that it is in the objective case, because it is the *indirect object* of the verb. (See Section xi., Ex. 19.)

‡ Parse this word as a Vocative or Nominative of address.

§ Carefully guard beginners against the common, but obvious blunder, of saying that 'adjectives denote the *qualities of nouns*.' *Nouns* are *names, i.e., words*. In 'a black dog' the adjective 'black' does not mark any quality belonging to the *name* 'dog.' It is the *animal* that is black, and not its name. An adjective is not a 'noun-marking word,' but a 'thing-marking word.'

animals. Thin ice is dangerous. The poor little bird is dead. Sinful pleasures are often alluring. The girls are ready. He is a ready speaker. The naughty children ate some apples. He is a vulgar little boy. The girl has large black eyes. The cat caught a great black rat. He rode a strong, bony, black horse. He wore a great, heavy, woollen cloak.

Insert a Qualitative Adjective in each of the following sentences :—

I saw a —— horse. Give me some —— pears. He is a —— man. —— boys will be punished. Look at that —— crow. He wears a —— hat. What a —— picture! They wear —— clothes. A —— man would not act thus. He suffers from a —— tooth. Mr. Jones is a —— physician. We had a —— game.

XVIII. Adjectives of Quantity.

Preliminary Lesson.—Nature and use of Adjectives of Quantity, or Quantitative Adjectives (§ 73).

Examples. "*John bought twelve pears.*" 'Twelve' is an Adjective of Quantity. It tells us *how many* pears we are speaking about.

"*I will give you some money.*" 'Some' is an Adjective of Quantity. It tells us (indefinitely) *how much* money we are speaking about.

Exercise 34. Write out the following sentences, and draw one line under the Adjectives of Quality, and two lines under the Adjectives of Quantity, and treat each of the latter in the same way as 'twelve' and 'some' in the above sentences.

The naughty, greedy little boy ate twenty pears. The poor woman has many troubles. Great* riches bring much care. I have little† hope of success. My little brother is ill. Many men possess great riches. Hold out both hands. We waited several hours in the cold room. I have no money. Much money brings much care. We travelled all night. Many men love vicious pleasures. Have you any money? Will you have some bread? Few men can resist strong temptation.

Insert a Quantitative Adjective in each of the following sentences :—

Give me —— shillings. I shall have —— pleasure. —— boys learn fast. We have not —— rich friends. He has had —— experience. John has made —— mistakes than Henry. They played the —— morning. The patient slept —— night. Have you —— money? Give me —— sugar. He loses —— his time in play. He has only —— eye. He grasped me with —— hands.

XIX. Demonstrative Adjectives or Adjectives of Relation.

Preliminary Lesson.—Nature and use of Demonstrative Adjectives. Different sorts of Demonstrative Adjectives (§ 74, 95).

* Mind that '*great*' and '*small*' are Adjectives of Quality. They do not tell us *how much* of a thing we are speaking about, but they *describe its size.*

† '*Little*' is used for both purposes, and is therefore sometimes an Adjective of Quality, and sometimes an Adjective of Quantity.

"*Give me that book.*"

'**That**' is a Demonstrative Adjective, or Adjective of Relation. It points out a certain book without describing it. It qualifies the noun 'book.'

"*He lent me his knife.*"

'**His**' is a Possessive Pronominal Adjective or Possessive Adjective Pronoun. It points out a certain knife, without reference to quality or quantity. It qualifies (or is joined attributively to) the noun 'knife.'

Exercise 35. Write out the following sentences, and draw one line under the Adjectives of Quality, two lines under the Adjectives of Quantity, and three lines under the Adjectives of Relation (or Demonstrative Adjectives), bearing in mind that several adjectives belong (with a slight difference of meaning) sometimes to one class, sometimes to another. (See § 73, *b*.) Look carefully at the definitions. Indicate what noun each adjective belongs to, or qualifies, by putting the same numeral over both the adjective and the noun, thus :—

1 2 3 1 2 3 4 4

"We heard of the poor old man's sudden death."

Give me that large book. Ring the bell. Bring me my new boots. This boy is idle. These sheep are fat. Look at the second line in this page. She will have the last word. We walk every other day. You will know better one day. No other course is possible. Any man could tell you that. Some people like this loud music. Each child received a penny. Every device has been tried. Either alternative is disagreeable. My apple is ripe. His first attempt was a failure. She is my first cousin. She was my first love. He has but little discretion. He has a large head and little eyes. A little leaven leaveneth the whole lump. A little child might lead him. An enemy hath done this. That last song was capital. Neither version of the story is correct. Those little boys are my cousins. Some * thief has stolen my watch. We had some † beef for dinner. Any * fool might see that. Have you any † money? I have not the least appetite. He spent half a day with me. John is his half brother. Second thoughts are best. We arrived on the second day. I went to see him one day lately. I have but one brother. There was no other way left. Which ‡ wine do you prefer? What ‡ news have you heard? What ‡ nonsense he talks!

XX. Comparison of Adjectives.

Preliminary Lesson.—Degrees of Comparison (§§ 79—86).

Exercise 36. Write down the comparative and superlative degrees of the following adjectives, or their substitutes :—

* Here this word is a *demonstrative* pronominal adjective (or indefinite adjective pronoun).

† Here this word relates to *quantity*.

‡ Mind that Interrogative Pronominal Adjectives (or Interrogative Adjective Pronouns) belong to the class of Adjectives of Relation (or Demonstrative Adjectives).

Large, great, high, fierce, lovely, full, tame, rich, happy, handsome, common, merry, near, gay, cold, holy, healthy, bright, big, red, rich, monstrous, winsome, sad, mad, beautiful, fresh, dull, hearty, quarrelsome, blithe, splendid, clever, idle, gentle.

Write down all three degrees of the following adjectives :—

Prettier, rudest, sweetest, justest, gentler, finest, steeper, tenderer, worst, slenderest, duller, gentlest, wittier, slower, tidiest, wealthier, handsomest, sprightlier, mightiest, nastiest, rudest, brightest, crudest, better, more, last.

XXI. Parsing of Adjectives.

Preliminary Lesson.—To parse an adjective state what sort of adjective it is, in what degree of comparison it is, and to what noun it is attached either attributively or predicatively. Lastly, state its three degrees of comparison.

Examples. "*His numerous virtues won much esteem.*"

His :—A Demonstrative (or Pronominal) Adjective. [It *points out* certain virtues, but does not describe or enumerate them.] It is joined* attributively to (*or* qualifies) the noun 'virtues.'

Numerous :—An Adjective of Quality in the Positive Degree. [It *describes* the virtues spoken of.] It is attached attributively to (*or* qualifies) the noun 'virtues.'

Much :—An Adjective of Quantity. [It denotes *how much esteem* is spoken of.] It is in the Positive Degree, and is attached attributively to the noun 'virtues.' (Much, more, most.)

"*These men are richer than those.*"

These :—A Demonstrative Adjective in the Plural Number, joined attributively to the noun 'men.' ['These' *points to* the men, but does not describe or enumerate them.]

Richer :—An Adjective of Quality [it *describes* certain men], in the Comparative Degree, joined predicatively to the noun 'men.' (Rich, richer, richest.)

Those :—A Demonstrative Adjective in the Plural Number, qualifying the noun *men* understood.

* An adjective is often said to 'qualify' a noun. This expression is legitimate only if the phrase 'to qualify a noun' means 'to denote some quality of that for which the noun stands,' or 'to limit the application of a noun.' An adjective does not in the least alter the *meaning* of the noun. As generally used the term smacks strongly of the blunder of saying that 'an adjective describes the quality of a noun.' If it is used, therefore, this mistake must be carefully guarded against.

"*Which hand will you have?*"

Which:—A Demonstrative Adjective or Interrogative Adjective Pronoun. [It *points* interrogatively *to* a certain hand, but does not describe it, or refer to its quantity.] It is joined attributively to the noun 'hand.'

Exercise 37. Parse all the adjectives (including the articles) in the following sentences. Those in italics qualify a noun which is understood. Supply the noun when necessary. Attend carefully to those examples where there is a noun in the possessive case, and see which nouns the adjectives qualify.

A. The wisest men are sometimes mistaken. A dense cloud hid the sun. Give me some more meat. Will that little boy have any more fruit? Give me the other volume. He has gained many more prizes than his elder brother. My youngest brother has gained the second prize in his class. Every * one was quiet. Each boy shall have a great piece of cake. That little girl has no milk. My younger sister is ill. Your elder brother lost some money yesterday. Ripe apples are nicer than sour* ones. *That* is the least atonement he can make. Few and brief were the prayers we said. Few men are his superiors. His few remaining acres were sold. Some persons are too hasty. You will know some day or *other*. Some careless person has upset the ink. *These* are my children. Give me the other hand. Here are two books, *which* will you have? That is the ripest pear. *Which* of these books is yours? Where are the others?† John is *the cleverest*‡ in the class. She is *the prettiest* of all my cousins. I went to see him one day lately. Have you any other sisters? Of these wines I prefer the *red* to the *white*. *The poor* suffer more than *the rich*. Will you have *hot* or cold milk? Which boy is *the cleverest?* Here is bread, will you have *some?* No, I will not have *any*.

B. He keeps a large boys' school. The little girls' frocks were torn. The girls' schools are well managed. The girls' lessons are too long. He is quite a ladies' man. He took a three days' journey. I have done a good day's work. I have had a whole day's anxiety. He teaches at the large boys' school. The elder boys' behaviour was excellent. She wore a large man's hat on her head. The large linen-draper's shop at the corner is on fire. The tall corporal's hat was knocked off. He fitted a Chubb's patent lock to his desk. He cropped the black horse's tail. He bought the handsomest lady's dress in the shop.

Point out which of the adjective pronouns in the following sentences are used adjectively, and which are used substantively, that is, without having the noun to which they relate expressed with them:—

On what day do you set out? I do not like this book; give me that. That is the style which I admire most. I could not find that book which you wanted. Will you have these or those? He gave twopence to each of them. I do not love either of them. That is what I said. I cannot

* An adjective may be attached to a pronoun as well as to a noun. 'One' is an Indefinite Substantive Pronoun.

† 'Others' (in the plural) is a Substantive Pronoun, which is here qualified by the demonstrative adjective 'the.'

‡ An article always belongs to some *noun* expressed or understood. When no noun can be conveniently supplied with the adjective, the adjective itself must be regarded as a substantive.

Large, great, high, fierce, lovely, full, tame, rich, happy, handsome, common, merry, near, gay, cold, holy, healthy, bright, big, red, rich, monstrous, winsome, sad, mad, beautiful, fresh, dull, hearty, quarrelsome, blithe, splendid, clever, idle, gentle.

Write down all three degrees of the following adjectives :—

Prettier, rudest, sweetest, justest, gentler, finest, steeper, tenderer, worst, slenderest, duller, gentlest, wittier, slower, tidiest, wealthier, handsomest, sprightlier, mightiest, nastiest, rudest, brightest, crudest, better, more, last.

XXI. Parsing of Adjectives.

Preliminary Lesson.—To parse an adjective state what sort of adjective it is, in what degree of comparison it is, and to what noun it is attached either attributively or predicatively. Lastly, state its three degrees of comparison.

Examples. "*His numerous virtues won much esteem.*"

His :—A Demonstrative (or Pronominal) Adjective. [It *points out* certain virtues, but does not describe or enumerate them.] It is joined * attributively to (*or* qualifies) the noun 'virtues.'

Numerous :—An Adjective of Quality in the Positive Degree. [It *describes* the virtues spoken of.] It is attached attributively to (*or* qualifies) the noun 'virtues.'

Much :—An Adjective of Quantity. [It denotes *how much esteem* is spoken of.] It is in the Positive Degree, and is attached attributively to the noun 'virtues.' (Much, more, most.)

"*These men are richer than those.*"

These :—A Demonstrative Adjective in the Plural Number, joined attributively to the noun 'men.' ['These' *points to* the men, but does not describe or enumerate them.]

Richer :—An Adjective of Quality [it *describes* certain men], in the Comparative Degree, joined predicatively to the noun 'men.' (Rich, richer, richest.)

Those :—A Demonstrative Adjective in the Plural Number, qualifying the noun *men* understood.

* An adjective is often said to 'qualify' a noun. This expression is legitimate only if the phrase 'to qualify a noun' means 'to denote some quality of that for which the noun stands,' or 'to limit the application of a noun.' An adjective does not in the least alter the *meaning* of the noun. As generally used the term smacks strongly of the blunder of saying that 'an adjective describes the quality of a noun.' If it is used, therefore, this mistake must be carefully guarded against.

"*Which hand will you have?*"

Which:—A Demonstrative Adjective or Interrogative Adjective Pronoun. [It *points* interrogatively *to* a certain hand, but does not describe it, or refer to its quantity.] It is joined attributively to the noun 'hand.'

Exercise 37. Parse all the adjectives (including the articles) in the following sentences. Those in italics qualify a noun which is understood. Supply the noun when necessary. Attend carefully to those examples where there is a noun in the possessive case, and see which nouns the adjectives qualify.

A. The wisest men are sometimes mistaken. A dense cloud hid the sun. Give me some more meat. Will that little boy have any more fruit? Give me the other volume. He has gained many more prizes than his elder brother. My youngest brother has gained the second prize in his class. Every * one was quiet. Each boy shall have a great piece of cake. That little girl has no milk. My younger sister is ill. Your elder brother lost some money yesterday. Ripe apples are nicer than sour * ones. *That* is the least atonement he can make. Few and brief were the prayers we said. Few men are his superiors. His few remaining acres were sold. Some persons are too hasty. You will know some day or *other*. Some careless person has upset the ink. *These* are my children. Give me the other hand. Here are two books, *which* will you have? That is the ripest pear. *Which* of these books is yours? Where are the others? † John is *the cleverest* ‡ in the class. She is *the prettiest* of all my cousins. I went to see him one day lately. Have you any other sisters? Of these wines I prefer the *red* to the *white*. *The poor* suffer more than *the rich*. Will you have *hot* or cold milk? Which boy is *the cleverest?* Here is bread, will you have *some?* No, I will not have *any*.

B. He keeps a large boys' school. The little girls' frocks were torn. The girls' schools are well managed. The girls' lessons are too long. He is quite a ladies' man. He took a three days' journey. I have done a good day's work. I have had a whole day's anxiety. He teaches at the large boys' school. The elder boys' behaviour was excellent. She wore a large man's hat on her head. The large linen-draper's shop at the corner is on fire. The tall corporal's hat was knocked off. He fitted a Chubb's patent lock to his desk. He cropped the black horse's tail. He bought the handsomest lady's dress in the shop.

Point out which of the adjective pronouns in the following sentences are used adjectively, and which are used substantively, that is, without having the noun to which they relate expressed with them:—

On what day do you set out? I do not like this book; give me that. That is the style which I admire most. I could not find that book which you wanted. Will you have these or those? He gave twopence to each of them. I do not love either of them. That is what I said. I cannot

* An adjective may be attached to a pronoun as well as to a noun. 'One' is an Indefinite Substantive Pronoun.

† 'Others' (in the plural) is a Substantive Pronoun, which is here qualified by the demonstrative adjective 'the.'

‡ An article always belongs to some *noun* expressed or understood. When no noun can be conveniently supplied with the adjective, the adjective itself must be regarded as a substantive.

eat this meat; have you no other? You may have whichever ball you like. What happiness is in store for you! Tell the others what I said. What lovely weather! Many suffer almost perpetual ill health. Let each esteem other better than himself. I have finished this volume, give me the other. Which book do you mean? What comes next? This mistake is worse than the other. Which pen do you want? Either will do.

Exercise 38. When *this* and *that* are not attached to a noun expressed or understood, they must be parsed as Demonstrative *Pronouns* (not as Demonstrative *Adjectives*), of the Neuter Gender, and in the Nominative or Objective case.

Parse the words in italics in the following sentences :—

This quite altered our plans. *That* was a great disappointment to us. How dare you tell me *that?* I cannot undertake *this*. I can never believe *that*. *This* is the very coinage of your brain. He does not frighten me by *that*. I shall be content with *that*.

Exercise 39. The demonstratives 'this,' 'that,' and 'it' may stand, 1. for a noun; 2. for an infinitive mood or gerund with its adjuncts; 3. for the act or fact stated in a sentence; 4. for the gerund or infinitive that denotes such an act or fact in an abstract form. 'It' often stands for an infinitive mood, a gerund, or a sentence that is *going to be used*. 'This' and 'that' are sometimes employed in a similar manner.

State clearly what the words in italics stand for in the following sentences :—

There is a pen, give *it* to me. I hoped to get here before noon, but I could not manage *it*. Our duty is to obey the dictates of conscience, however difficult *it* may be. To comply with your request is difficult, if *it* be not absolutely impossible. He said that the matter was self-evident, but I could not see *it*. We all knew that the attempt was hopeless, but he would not believe *it*. I will help you if *it* is possible. I will call upon you to-morrow if *it* is convenient. *It* would have been better for him if he had never known that man. *It* grieved him to lose so much money. *It* is impossible to tell what the result will be. *It* is of no use trying to help him. I think *it* best to hold my tongue about the matter. *It* vexes me that he should act in this way. *It* is very likely that he will come to-morrow. I think *it* very strange that he did not tell me. If you do not give up these bad habits, you will suffer for *it*. He thought of enlisting as a soldier, but *this* I would not allow. He asked me to surrender my claim, but I *would* not consent to *that*. Read these letters to your father; *that* will amuse him. His father threatened to disinherit him, and *that* brought him to his senses.

XXII. Abstract Nouns.

Preliminary Lesson.—Nature and formation of Abstract Nouns (§§ 26, 27, 239, 254).

Exercise 40. A. Give the abstract nouns which correspond to the following adjectives :—

Pure, simple, good, bad, worthy, splendid, just, meek, temperate, large, wide, broad, slow, quick, red, blue, sour, sharp, sweet, distant, near, soft, able, innocent, durable, brilliant, merry, brief, white, long, able, humble, popular, obstinate, wicked, pious, poor, sad, infirm, jovial, silent, wise, prudent, abundant, useful, jealous, monstrous, dead.

B. Give the abstract nouns derived from the following nouns :—

Friend, son, father, man, child, king, martyr, priest, widow, relation, infant, sovereign, regent, leader, magistrate, mayor, sheriff, captain, colonel.

C. Form abstract nouns (not ending in *-ing*) corresponding to the following verbs :—

Offend ; condescend ; derange ; arrange ; complete ; protect ; suspend ; deride ; conceal ; steal ; deceive ; invent ; invert ; destroy ; multiply ; crown ; weigh ; hate ; justify ; move ; sing ; abstract ; advance ; measure ; erase ; proceed ; depress ; interrogate ; deviate ; degrade ; displace ; debase ; contract ; dissect ; convene ; exact ; please ; fix ; absolve ; treat ; depart ; seize ; thieve ; steal.

D. Give the adjectives or nouns from which the following abstract nouns are formed :—

Fickleness ; suppleness ; height ; depth ; acidity ; patience ; dependence ; impertinence ; elegance ; uprightness ; strength ; weakness ; mortality ; durability ; grandeur ; width ; death ; wisdom ; infirmity ; amplitude ; convenience ; piety ; humility ; brevity ; rascality ; mayoralty ; shrievalty ; boredom ; girlhood ; nobility ; stupidity ; sleepiness ; greenness ; rigidity ; ductility ; sonority ; prosperity ; valour ; magnanimity ; elevation ; candour ; insipidity ; heroism ; breadth ; senility ; health ; youth ; dearth ; ponderosity ; legibility.

E. Give the verbs from which the following abstract nouns are derived :—

Intrusion ; reflection ; estrangement ; seclusion ; injection ; thought ; flight ; thrift ; growth ; tilth ; decision ; coercion ; defence ; conception ; adaptation ; derision ; judgment ; addition ; composition ; declension ; pressure ; action ; suction ; laughter.

XXIII. Adverbs.

Preliminary Lesson.—Nature and use of Adverbs. **Adverbs of Manner** answer the question 'How?' **Adverbs of Degree** show 'to what degree or extent' the meaning of a verb, adjective, or other adverb is to be taken. **Adverbs of Time** answer the questions 'When?' 'How long?' 'How often?' **Adverbs of Place** answer the questions 'Where?' 'Whence?' 'Whither?'

Adverbs are usually said to modify* the verb, adjective, or adverb to which they are attached (§§ 201—216).

Examples.

"*The mountain rises abruptly from the plain.*"

Abruptly is a word that shows *how* the mountain rises (or answers the question 'How does the mountain rise?'). Therefore it is an Adverb of Manner, modifying the verb 'rises.'

"*That is too bad.*"

Too is a word which shows to what degree 'that' is bad; or answers the question 'how bad?' Therefore it is an Adverb of Degree, modifying the adjective 'bad.'

"*He came yesterday.*"

Yesterday is a word that shows *when* he came (or answers the question 'When did he come?'). Therefore it is an Adverb of Time, modifying the verb 'came.'

"*We seldom see him.*"

Seldom answers the question '*How often* do we see him?' Therefore it is an Adverb of Time modifying the verb 'see.'

"*My uncle lives there.*"

There shows the place where my uncle lives (or answers the question 'Where does my uncle live?'). It is an Adverb of Place, modifying the verb 'lives.'

Exercise 42. Deal as in the above examples with each of the Adverbs in the following sentences:—

I saw him yesterday. John often writes to us. We went thither. They soon returned. Mary plays beautifully. We lay down to sleep. Now attend to me. My friends live yonder. He went away. They rode along together. The troops fought splendidly. She is upstairs. The children played indoors. I will go thither directly. He went straightway. He always contradicts me. He walked backwards. Stand so. I placed my hand thus. You speak too rapidly. He is very learned. I am almost penniless. The bird is quite dead. I am much obliged to you. He was an extremely wicked man. I am very much obliged to you. We have got thus far on our journey. Oh! I am so tired. Do not tell so many stories. He is far too extravagant. I am very much surprised. They very soon returned. The project was monstrously foolish.

Exercise 43. Make half a dozen sentences to illustrate the use of each sort of adverb contained in the preceding examples.

* To 'modify' a verb is to state some *mode* or *condition*, in or under which the action denoted by the verb is performed.

Exercise 44. State the Degree of Comparison of each of the adverbs in italics in the following sentences, and point out what verb, adjective, or adverb it modifies.

John reads *well*, but Thomas reads *better*. He is *most* careful in his conduct. He acted *more* prudently than his friend. He walked *farther* than I did. He works *harder* than ever. They get up very *early*. I get up *earlier* than you. You write *worse* than your brother. He *often* comes here. He comes *oftener* than ever. He is *less* restless to-day. He is *more* composed. He was the *least* alarmed of all. He is *most* attentive to his work. My brother came *last*. I would *rather* not go. I would *sooner* die. The children were here *soonest*. That poor man is the *worst* hurt.

Exercise 45. Make ten sentences containing adverbs in the comparative degree, and ten containing adverbs in the superlative degree.

Parsing of Adverbs. To parse an Adverb state to which class of adverbs it belongs, what its degree of comparison is (if it admits of comparison), giving the three degrees, and what verb, adjective, or adverb it modifies.

Exercise 46 Parse the Adverbs in Exercises 42 and 44.

XXIV. Nouns used Adverbially.

Preliminary Lesson.—A noun in the objective case with an adjective or some equivalent phrase, or even standing by itself, often does duty for an adverb. The noun should be parsed as being in the Adverbial Objective, modifying (either singly, or when taken with its adjective) some verb or adjective (§ 291, 3).

Exercise 47. Parse the nouns in italics in the following sentences :—

He travelled all *night*. Many a *time* have I played with him. I have seen him many *times*. He comes here four *times* a week. That happened a *year* ago. I shall see you next *week*. He slept *all night*. *Day* by day we magnify Thee. He comes bothering me *day* after day. He turned his head another *way*. This is many *degrees* better than that. He is a *year* older than I am. I could not come a *day* sooner. The town is ten *miles* distant. We travelled *day* and *night*. He came forth bound *hand* and *foot*. He arrived *post-haste*.

XXV. Adjectives used Adverbially, and Adverbs reduced to the form of Adjectives.

Preliminary Lesson.—Many adjectives, especially those of Quantity, are used as substantives, it being impossible to supply

any particular noun with them. These (like nouns) are often used with an adverbial force. They once had the dative inflexion. It is better now to parse them as simple adverbs. When they are used as subjects or objects of verbs, or after prepositions, they should be parsed as *substantival adjectives*, or (more simply) as *substantives*.

On the other hand, many adverbs which once ended in *-e* have lost that inflexion, and become identical in form with adjectives.

"*Much has been revealed, but more remains behind.*" Here '*much*' and '*more*' are substantives, the subjects of the verbs that follow them.

"*I do not much admire him.*" "*He is not much happier.*" Here '*much*' is an adverb, modifying (1) a verb, (2) an adjective.

"*He is no better.*" Here '*no*' is an adverb modifying the adverb 'better.'

"*He has not much money; his brother has more.*" Here '*much*' is an adjective qualifying 'money,' and '*more*' is an adjective qualifying 'money' understood.

Exercise 48. Parse the words in italics in the following sentences, carefully distinguishing the *adjectives proper*, the *substantival adjectives*, and the *adverbs* :—

I have *enough*. I gave him *all* I had. In *general* I approve of his proceedings. *Much* depends upon his answer. He knows *more* than he tells. Here is some wine, will you have a *little?* He told me *less* than his brother. Do not let us hear *more* of that. You know *most* about it. The *long* and the *short* of it is, that I had my pains for nothing. I will follow you through *thick* and *thin*. He is my *best* friend. I did my *best*. He is the *best* dressed man in the room. He slept *all* night. He has lost *all*. *All* bloodless lay the untrodden snow. That is *all* nonsense. He is *all* powerful here. We have *much* cause for thankfulness. He is *much* worse to-day. *Much* remains to be done. I am *much* happier. He has *more* ability than his brother. He is *more* contented. I could hear *no more*. He is *no* * wiser than before. I have *no* ink. He shows but *little* gratitude. We expect not a *little* from him. He is but *little* better. That is a *most* lovely prospect. Nobody *else* † was there. I have not meat *enough*. ‡ I have *enough* and to spare.

He is *less* restless than he was yesterday. He ran *all* round the park. You know *best*. Do your *best*. The *future* is hidden from our gaze. In *future* times he will be famous. That decision was *right*. He cut *right* through the helmet. Hear the *right*, O Lord. We have a choice between

* 'No,' as an adverb may be taken as the simple adverb 'na' = never (A.S.).

† 'Else' is always an adverb.

‡ 'Enough' is best taken as an adverb, meaning, 'in sufficient abundance,' except when it is a substantive.

good and *ill*. *Ill* weeds thrive apace. The house is *ill* built. The earth turns *round*. He wears a *round* hat. Such a *round* of pleasures is wearisome. That is a *pretty* picture. He is *pretty* sure of the prize. He was a *very* thunderbolt of war. You are *very* kind. That is the *very least* you can do. I cannot say *more*. I ask for *no** *more*, and I will take *no less*. I will take one *more*† glass. He bought two *more* loaves. Will you take some‡ *more* wine. I will not take *any more*. *Enough* has been done. They have money *enough*. He is *like*§ my brother. He swore *like* a trooper. I ne'er shall look upon his *like* again. I am your *equal*. We were *just* starting. He was discoursing about the *true* and the *just*. There is but a step from the *sublime* to the *ridiculous*. We are *near* neighbours. Come *near* the fire.

XXVI. Prepositions.

Preliminary Lesson.—Nature and use of Prepositions. Relations which they indicate. Words which they join (§§ 217—220).

Examples.

A. "*I see a mouse on the floor.*' '**On**' is a preposition governing the noun 'floor' in the objective case, and joining it to the noun 'mouse.' It shows the relation of one *thing* (mouse) to *another* (floor).

B. "*He leaped over the wall.*" '**Over**' is a preposition governing the noun 'wall' in the objective case, and joining it to the verb 'leaped.' It shows the relation of an *act* (leaping) to a *thing* (wall).

C. "*He is afraid of me.*" '**Of**' is a preposition governing the pronoun 'me' in the objective case, and joining it to the adjective 'afraid.' It shows the relation of an *attribute* (afraid) to a *person* (me).

Exercise 49. Parse the prepositions in the following sentences in the same way as in the above examples:—

Pick up the books on the floor. I saw Jane in the kitchen. My father lives in London. People in trouble often go to him. He works at the factory. I am fond of music. The tub is full of water. I am anxious about his safety. A blow on the head knocked him down. We saw the men in armour. Grief at the loss of his money turned him crazy. The love of money is the root of all evil. Dick rode to York. Do not sit on the table. Do not touch the books on the table. I am weary of work. He spoke of me. He spoke to me at the close of the meeting. We arrived the day before yesterday. We

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* 'No' is here an adverb modifying 'more.' An adjective used as a substantive may still be modified by an adverb.

† In cases of this kind *more* is usually regarded as an adjective, equivalent to *additional*. Mätzner (vol. iii., p. 272) is inclined to regard *more*, when used with numerals and pronouns, as having been originally an adverb (= Latin *insuper, amplius*). Compare the German *noch* and the French *encore*. This is no doubt the case when it follows the noun, as in 'one word *more*.'

‡ 'Some' is never used as an adverb.

§ When 'like' denotes *personal* resemblance, it is an adjective. When it denotes that one *action* resembles another, it is an adverb.

shall start the day after to-morrow. He shrank from the danger. I have in my hand a letter from my father.

Exercise 50. Make ten sentences in which a preposition shows the relation of a *thing* to a *thing*; ten in which it shows the relation of an *action* to a *thing*; and ten in which it shows the relation of an *attribute* to a *thing*.

XXVII. Adverbs and Prepositions.

Preliminary Lesson.—The same word is often used both as an adverb and as a preposition. When it governs a noun or pronoun, it is a preposition. When there is no noun or pronoun governed by it, it is an adverb.

Exercise 51. Parse the words in italics in the following sentences:—

He got up *behind*. There is a garden *behind* the house. Do not lag *behind*. He departed *before* my arrival. I told you all that *before*. Run *round* the table. The earth turns *round*. I rode *inside* the omnibus. He rode *outside*. He ran *after* me. That comes *after*. The box was painted *within* and *without*. She stayed *within* the house. Come *along*. We walked *along* the road. We walked *by* the river. The storm passed *by*. I will come *by* and *by*. He cut a piece *off* the loaf. The stick is too long; cut a piece *off*.

Exercise 52. Find a dozen words which may be used either as Adverbs or as Prepositions, and make sentences to illustrate their use.

XXVIII. The Infinitive Mood.

Preliminary Lesson.—A. Nature and use of the Simple Infinitive. **Shall, will, may,** and **do** as notional and as auxiliary verbs. **Must** and **can** are always notional verbs (§§ 150, 151).

Examples.

"*I will never forget you.*"

'**Will**':—A defective (notional) Verb; in the Active Voice, Indicative Mood, Present Tense; and in the Singular Number and First Person, to agree with its subject '*I*.'

'**Forget**':—A Transitive Verb in the Active Voice, and in the (simple) Infinitive Mood, depending on (*or* the object of) the verb '*will*.'

"*Thou shalt not steal.*"

'**Shalt**' is a defective (notional) Verb; in the Active Voice, Indicative Mood, Present Tense; and in the Singular Number and the Second Person, to agree with its subject '*thou*.'

'**Steal**' is a Transitive Verb, in the Active Voice, and in the (simple) Infinitive Mood, depending on (or governed by) the verb '*shalt*.'

"*You may go.*"

'**May**' is a defective (notional) Verb, in the Active Voice, Indicative Mood, Present Tense; and in the Plural Number, and the Second Person to agree with its subject 'you.'

'**Go**' is an Intransitive Verb, in the Active Voice, and in the (simple) Infinitive Mood, depending on (or governed by) the verb '*may*.'

"*He did his duty.*"

'**Did**' is a notional Transitive Verb, in the Active Voice, Indicative Mood, Past Indefinite Tense, and in the Singular Number and the Third Person to agree with its subject '*He*.'

"*I shall soon depart.*"

Here '**shall**' is an auxiliary (not a *notional*) Verb. The simple infinitive '**depart**' depends upon it in the same manner as in the preceding examples. The two verbs 'shall' and 'depart' may be parsed separately, or the compound phrase 'shall depart' may be parsed as the future tense of the verb 'depart.'

"*He will come presently.*"

Here '**will**' is a mere auxiliary of the future tense. The notion of volition is entirely lost sight of. It may be treated like '*shall*' in the last example.

"*You do assist the storm.*" "*Did you hear the rain?*"

In these examples '**do**' and '**did**' are mere auxiliaries. 'You do assist' does not differ in the least in sense from 'you assist.' The verb does not itself constitute an *emphatic* form. The compound form is emphatic only when an *emphasis is laid upon the* '*do*.' But then any form is emphatic when it is emphasized.

"*He does this that he may vex me.*"

Here '**may**' is a mere auxiliary of the Subjunctive Mood, and is in the Subjunctive Mood itself. The notion of *power* or *permission* has altogether vanished. It does not *assert* that *he is able* or *is permitted* to vex me.

Exercise 53. Parse all the verbs in the following sentences, and

specify in the case of the finite verbs whether they are used as notional or as auxiliary verbs:—

We can dance. You may go. You might have gone an hour ago. I shall stay. I will go with you. You must go directly. He could not reply. He would not come when I called him. You shall not have it. He shall not know of it. I dare not go back. He will soon return. You need not stay. He durst not go home. I could leap over that wall once. They would keep on making a noise. You need not be alarmed. "You do * assist the storm." The cry did * knock against my very heart. You would not have my help when you might. I will do my best. He did what he could. May I come in? We will never yield to threats. When shall you see your brother? He says that he will not come.

Preliminary Lesson.—B. Nature and use of the gerundial infinitive, or infinitive with 'to.' As the subject or object of another verb it does the work of a substantive. When it denotes the purpose or cause of an action or state, it does the work of an adverb (§ 152).

The neuter pronoun 'it' is often used as a temporary or provisional subject or object, to show that an infinitive is coming, and to indicate its construction.

"*It is useless to make the attempt.*"

'**It**' is a Neuter Demonstrative Pronoun of the Third Person, in the Singular Number and Nominative Case, forming the temporary subject of the verb 'is.'

'**To make**':— A Transitive Verb in the Active Voice, and in the Present Indefinite Tense of the Infinitive Mood, forming the real subject of the verb 'is,' and governing 'attempt' in the objective case.

"*He thinks it better not to come.*" Here 'it' is the *temporary object* of the verb 'thinks,' and the infinitive 'to come' is the *real object.*

"*He ran to meet me.*" Here 'to meet' is a transitive verb in the Present Indefinite Tense of the Infinitive Mood, Active Voice, used with the force of an adverb modifying the verb 'ran.'

Exercise 54. Parse the verbs in italics and the word 'it' in the following sentences in the way indicated above:—

To obey is better than sacrifice. *To work* hard is the way to succeed. *It* is useless *to ask* him. *It* is easy *to see* that. We found *it* advisable *to return.* He hopes *to hear* from you soon. He dislikes *to be kept* waiting. He came *to*

* When 'do' is a mere auxiliary (whether emphatic or unemphatic) it may be parsed separately, or else taken with the dependent infinitive, and the compound form may be parsed in the same way as the simple tense for which it is a substitute. Thus: 'Did knock' may be treated as equivalent to 'knocked.' See the preceding examples.

pay me some money. He did his best *to ruin* me. I am delighted *to see** you. He is anxious *to do** his duty. The water is not fit *to drink.** I am happy *to find** you so much better. They are come *to stay* with us. We found *it* impossible *to go* on. I am glad *to hear** it. I shall be sorry *to leave.** He is too clever *to make** such a mistake. Such a fellow is not fit *to live.**

Exercise 55. Make ten sentences in which a gerundial infinitive is the subject of a verb; ten in which it is the object of a verb; and ten in which it does the work of an adverb.

XXIX. Gerunds and Participles.

Preliminary Lesson.—Origin and use of Gerunds and Participles. The verbal noun in *-ing* should be treated as an ordinary abstract noun when it is preceded by an article, or followed by the preposition 'of.' When it governs a noun or pronoun in the objective, it should be treated as a gerund (§§ 153—157).

Exercise 56. Write out the following sentences, and draw one line under the Abstract Nouns in *-ing;* two lines under the Gerunds; three lines under the imperfect (Active) participles :—

Seeing† is believing. He went to see the hunting of the snark. I see a man riding on horseback. I like reading. I like reading history. The excessive reading of novels is injurious. He hates lying. A lying witness ought to be punished. In keeping Thy commandments there is great reward. His conduct is in keeping with his professions. We arrived there first through taking a short cut. We fell in with a ship sailing to America. He is delighted at having succeeded ‡ in his design. We were late in consequence of having lost‡ our way. He was angry at my going away. No good can come of your doing that. Oblige me by all leaving the room. On some opposition being made he withdrew his demand. I lay a thinking.§ Forty and six years was this temple in building. We started before the rising of the sun. By sedulously doing his duty he gained the approbation of all. Quitting the forest, we advanced into the open plain. There was a great deal of shouting and clapping of hands.

XXX. Parsing of Participles.

Preliminary Lesson.—Participles proper. Participles used as ordinary Qualitative Adjectives. Participles used absolutely (§§ 156, 157).

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* In these cases the gerundial infinitive does the work of an adverb, and modifies the preceding adjective. Sometimes it expresses the *cause* of the state denoted by the adjective.

† When the verbal noun in *-ing* does not govern an object it may be treated as a simple abstract noun.

‡ This must be treated as a compound gerund. It is impossible to construct the abstract noun in *-ing* with a past participle.

§ Here 'a' is a preposition (= at *or* in). 'Thinking' had better be taken in such constructions as the Abstract Noun in *-ing*.

specify in the case of the finite verbs whether they are used as notional or as auxiliary verbs: —

We can dance. You may go. You might have gone an hour ago. I shall stay. I will go with you. You must go directly. He could not reply. He would not come when I called him. You shall not have it. He shall not know of it. I dare not go back. He will soon return. You need not stay. He durst not go home. I could leap over that wall once. They would keep on making a noise. You need not be alarmed. "You do * assist the storm." The cry did* knock against my very heart. You would not have my help when you might. I will do my best. He did what he could. May I come in? We will never yield to threats. When shall you see your brother? He says that he will not come.

Preliminary Lesson.—B. Nature and use of the gerundial infinitive, or infinitive with 'to.' As the subject or object of another verb it does the work of a substantive. When it denotes the purpose or cause of an action or state, it does the work of an adverb (§ 152).

The neuter pronoun 'it' is often used as a temporary or provisional subject or object, to show that an infinitive is coming, and to indicate its construction.

"*It is useless to make the attempt.*"

'**It**' is a Neuter Demonstrative Pronoun of the Third Person, in the Singular Number and Nominative Case, forming the temporary subject of the verb 'is.'

'**To make**':— A Transitive Verb in the Active Voice, and in the Present Indefinite Tense of the Infinitive Mood, forming the real subject of the verb 'is,' and governing 'attempt' in the objective case.

"*He thinks it better not to come.*" Here 'it' is the *temporary object* of the verb 'thinks,' and the infinitive 'to come' is the *real object.*

"*He ran to meet me.*" Here 'to meet' is a transitive verb in the Present Indefinite Tense of the Infinitive Mood, Active Voice, used with the force of an adverb modifying the verb 'ran.'

Exercise 54. Parse the verbs in italics and the word 'it' in the following sentences in the way indicated above :—

To obey is better than sacrifice. *To work* hard is the way to succeed. *It* is useless *to ask* him. *It* is easy *to see* that. We found *it* advisable *to return.* He hopes *to hear* from you soon. He dislikes *to be kept* waiting. He came *to*

* When 'do' is a mere auxiliary (whether emphatic or unemphatic) it may be parsed separately, or else taken with the dependent infinitive, and the compound form may be parsed in the same way as the simple tense for which it is a substitute. Thus: 'Did knock' may be treated as equivalent to 'knocked.' See the preceding examples.

pay me some money. He did his best *to ruin* me. I am delighted *to see** you. He is anxious *to do** his duty. The water is not fit *to drink.** I am happy *to find** you so much better. They are come *to stay* with us. We found *it* impossible *to go* on. I am glad *to hear** it. I shall be sorry *to leave.** He is too clever *to make** such a mistake. Such a fellow is not fit *to live.**

Exercise 55. Make ten sentences in which a gerundial infinitive is the subject of a verb; ten in which it is the object of a verb; and ten in which it does the work of an adverb.

XXIX. Gerunds and Participles.

Preliminary Lesson.—Origin and use of Gerunds and Participles. The verbal noun in *-ing* should be treated as an ordinary abstract noun when it is preceded by an article, or followed by the preposition 'of.' When it governs a noun or pronoun in the objective, it should be treated as a gerund (§§ 153—157).

Exercise 56. Write out the following sentences, and draw one line under the Abstract Nouns in *-ing*; two lines under the Gerunds; three lines under the imperfect (Active) participles:—

Seeing† is believing. He went to see the hunting of the snark. I see a man riding on horseback. I like reading. I like reading history. The excessive reading of novels is injurious. He hates lying. A lying witness ought to be punished. In keeping Thy commandments there is great reward. His conduct is in keeping with his professions. We arrived there first through taking a short cut. We fell in with a ship sailing to America. He is delighted at having succeeded‡ in his design. We were late in consequence of having lost‡ our way. He was angry at my going away. No good can come of your doing that. Oblige me by all leaving the room. On some opposition being made he withdrew his demand. I lay a thinking.§ Forty and six years was this temple in building. We started before the rising of the sun. By sedulously doing his duty he gained the approbation of all. Quitting the forest, we advanced into the open plain. There was a great deal of shouting and clapping of hands.

XXX. Parsing of Participles.

Preliminary Lesson.—Participles proper. Participles used as ordinary Qualitative Adjectives. Participles used absolutely (§§ 156, 157).

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* In these cases the gerundial infinitive does the work of an adverb, and modifies the preceding adjective. Sometimes it expresses the *cause* of the state denoted by the adjective.

† When the verbal noun in *-ing* does not govern an object it may be treated as a simple abstract noun.

‡ This must be treated as a compound gerund. It is impossible to construct the abstract noun in *-ing* with a past participle.

§ Here 'a' is a preposition (= at *or* in). 'Thinking' had better be taken in such constructions as the Abstract Noun in *-ing*.

"*Fanned by the wind, the fire blazed fiercely.*"

'Fanned' is the Perfect (or Past) Participle of the verb 'fan,' qualifying the noun 'fire,' to which it is joined attributively.

"*My honoured master bade me tell you this.*"

'Honoured' is the Perfect Participle of the verb 'honour,' used as an Adjective of Quality, qualifying the noun 'master.'

"*Smiling faintly, he pressed my hand.*"

'Smiling' is the Imperfect Active Participle of the verb 'smile,' qualifying the pronoun 'he.'

"*Considering all things, he has done very well.*"

'Considering' is the Imperfect Active Participle of the verb 'consider,' used absolutely. 'Things' is a noun in the objective case, the object of the transitive participle 'considering.'

"*Hail, smiling Morn.*"

'Smiling' is the Imperfect Active Participle of the verb 'smile,' used as an ordinary Qualitative Adjective, joined attributively to the noun 'Morn.'

Exercise 57. Parse the Participles in the following sentences :—

Hope deferred maketh the heart sick. He bought a deferred annuity. Smiling scornfully, he strode into the circle. Look at that smiling villain. Generally speaking he dines at home. Considering your age, you have done very well. I caught sight of the thief climbing in at the window. A falcon, towering in her pride of place, was by a mousing owl hawked at and killed. Accoutred as I was, I plunged in. Being apprised of our approach, the whole neighbourhood came out to meet their minister, dressed in their fine clothes, and preceded by a pipe and tabor.

XXXI. Interrogative and Negative Sentences.

Preliminary Lesson.—The elements of an Interrogative sentence are related to each other in the same way as those of the declarative sentence which would be its complete answer. Compare 'Did you hear?' and 'I did hear';* 'Who told you so?' and 'He told me so'; 'Whom did you meet?' and 'I met John,' &c., 'Where do you live?' and 'I live there,' &c. Use of the verb 'Do.'

Exercise 59. Give the complete sentences which are answers to the following questions, and then parse all the words in each :—

* 'Did' and 'hear' may be parsed separately, or taken together as equivalent to 'heard.'

Are you happy? Did you say so? Have you any money? Did your brother do that? Does your sister sing well? Will your father return to morrow? Shall you be afraid to go? Will you meet me there to-morrow? Did the man go away? Have the boys hurt themselves?

Exercise 60. Take the answers to the preceding questions, and turn them into the negative form.

Exercise 61. Parse the verbs and the interrogative pronouns and adverbs in the following sentences.

[In the first few sentences (*s*) is put after the subject and (*o*) after the object of the verb, when it is an interrogative pronoun, and the same numeral is placed after an interrogative pronoun and the preposition that governs it, and after an interrogative adverb and the word that it modifies; and (*a*) is placed after those interrogative pronouns (or pronominal adjectives) which qualify the nouns that they precede.]

Who (*s*) called me? What (*o*) did you say? Which (*a*) way is the shortest? What (*o*) did you eat for supper? On what (*a*) day do you set out? What (1) do you hope for (1)? Whom (2) are you writing to (2)? Where (3) do you live (3)? How (4) far (4) did you walk?

What comes next? Which boy made that noise? What author do you like best? Whom are you waiting for? Whom did you see? On what day do you set out? Where did you find that book? Whither are you going? Whose* pen is this? What happened yesterday? What did you say? What induced you to say so? Which of them is right? Which of these books do you want? Which pleases you most?

What ails you? In which house does your uncle live? What poet's writings please you most? On what day do you set out? When† will you come? How† did you do that? How† many persons were present? How† often do you write home? Why† do you say that? How† soon will you come? Where‡ are you going to? Where‡ do you come from?

Write answers to all the questions in this exercise in full, and then turn these answers into the negative form.

XXXII. Imperative Sentences.

Preliminary Lesson.—Use of the Imperative Mood (§ 147).

"*Go thou and do likewise.*"

'Go' is an intransitive verb in the Active Voice, Imperative Mood, Second Person Singular, to agree with its subject 'thou.'

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* Parse 'whose' as an interrogative pronoun of common gender, in the possessive case depending on the noun 'pen.'

† Mind that an interrogative adverb modifies either the verb of the sentence in which it occurs, or some adjective or adverb.

‡ In cases like this, 'where' should be taken as doing duty for an interrogative pronoun, governed by the preposition 'to' or 'from.'

'**Do**' is parsed in the same way, except that it agrees with a subject 'thou' understood.

"*Let me see that.*"

'**Let**' is a transitive verb in the Active Voice, Imperative Mood, and in the second person plural, to agree with its subject 'you' understood.*

'**See**' is a transitive verb in the Active Voice, and in the (simple) infinitive mood depending on (or governed by) the verb 'let.'

'**Me**' is in the objective case, governed by 'let.'

Exercise 62. Parse all the words in the following sentences:—

Let me go. Come hither, boys?† Be thou familiar, but by no means vulgar. Let him see it. Let us be spared this annoyance. Let us pray. Let me be cautious in the business. Do be quiet, boys.

XXXIII. Relative or Conjunctive Pronouns.

Preliminary Lesson.—Use of Relative Pronouns (§§ 108—121).

"*He is a man who is beloved by everybody.*"

'**Who**' is a Relative Pronoun, of the Masculine Gender, in the Singular Number and of the Third Person, to agree with its antecedent 'man.' It is in the nominative case because it is the subject of the verb 'is beloved.' It joins the clause 'who is beloved by all' to the noun 'man.'

"*That is the lady whose husband you met yesterday.*"

'**Whose**' is a Relative Pronoun of the Feminine Gender in the Singular Number and of the Third Person, to agree with its antecedent 'lady.' It is in the Possessive Case depending‡ on (or qualifying) the noun 'husband.' It joins the clause 'whose husband you met yesterday' to the noun 'lady.'

"*Here is the man whom you wished to see.*"

Here '**whom**' is in the objective case, the object of the verb 'to see.'

"*You have not brought me the book that I asked you for.*"

'**That**' is a Relative Pronoun of the Neuter Gender, in the Singular Number and of the Third Person, to agree with its antecedent 'book.' It is in the objective case, governed by the preposition 'for.' It joins the clause 'that I asked you for' to the noun 'book.'

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* 'You' is always a *grammatical* plural.

† Parse 'boys' as a Vocative, or Nominative of Address.

‡ If 'whose' be treated as the possessive case of a substantive pronoun, it must be parsed like a noun in the possessive. If 'whose' be regarded as on a par with *my, our, his* &c., it must be dealt with as an adjective.

The construction of a relative clause is word for word the same as that of the clause which results when a demonstrative pronoun, or the antecedent noun is substituted for the relative. Thus 'That I asked you for' is like 'I asked you for it (or the book)': 'Whose husband you met yesterday' is like 'you met her husband yesterday.'

Exercise 63. Parse all the Relative Pronouns in the following sentences, and test the construction by substituting demonstratives for the relatives as in the above examples :—

The man whom you met is my brother. The artist who painted that picture died last year. I never saw the man whom you speak of. Where is the pen which I gave you? I who am poorer than you are, am contented. Thou, who wast my friend and guide, hast forsaken me. You, who have done the damage, must repair it. We who are well off should pity and help the poor. He is a man whose appearance is prepossessing. The boys whose work is finished may go out to play. He that is down need fear no fall. I will show you the horse which I bought yesterday. The picture which pleased you so much was painted by my brother. You have not brought me the volume that I asked for. He is the very man that I was speaking of. Their sorrows shall be multiplied that hasten after another God. It is that that grieves me. This that you tell me is incredible. "Why, Harry, do I tell thee of my foes, which art my near'st and dearest enemy?" "I am that very duke which was thrust from Milan." "Whosoever* hath, to him shall be given." "Blessed is he whosoever shall not be offended in Me." He doth sin that doth belie the dead. Whose hatred is covered by deceit, his wickedness shall be showed before the whole congregation. They are but faint-hearted whose courage fails in time of danger. He to-day that sheds his blood with me shall be my brother. 'This is the priest all shaven and shorn, that married the man all tattered and torn, that kissed the maiden all forlorn, that milked the cow with the crumpled horn, that tossed the dog that worried the cat that killed the rat that ate the malt that lay in the house that Jack built.' Here is the man whom I sent for. Give me the book that lies on that table. Give me the book that I asked for. Bring back the book that I lent you. He likes everything that I like. He likes everything that pleases me. He likes everything that I am fond of. Correct the mistake which he made. Correct the mistakes which occur in that sentence.

Exercise 65. Supply (and parse) the relative pronouns which are omitted in the following sentences.

Pay me the money you owe me. You have not sent the goods I bought yesterday. Have you received the money I sent you? That is the place I went to. You are the very man I was looking for. "I have a mind presages me such thrift, that I should questionless be fortunate." That is not the way I came. Those are the very words he used. Is the task I set you finished yet? He is not the man I expected. Which was the road you took? That is not the book I gave you. He has not answered the letter I wrote him. Where is the book you promised me? Put on the smartest dress you have.

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* The parsing of these compound relatives does not differ from that of the simple relatives. They should be described as *compound*, or *indefinite relatives*.

Make a dozen sentences in which a suppressed relative may be supplied.

Write out the following sentences ; draw one line under the relative pronouns, and two lines under the interrogative pronouns :—

Which is the shortest road? Have you read the book which I gave you? Do you know what he said? Whom did he refer to? Who said so? Is that the man who said so? Do you know who did this? Did you see which way he went? Is that what you said? Tell me what you said? I want to know who broke the window. They do not know what to do. What is the matter with you? Do you know what that means? Did you hear what I said? By what means can we succeed? On what day will you come? Why do you tell me what I know already? When did you receive what I sent you? Who is there? Do you know the gentleman who has just arrived? Whose hat is this? Can you tell me whose hat this is? Do you know the man whose house was robbed? Will you tell me whom I am to give this to?

Exercise 66. When 'which' accompanies and qualifies a noun, it should be parsed as a 'Conjunctive Pronominal Adjective.' It then generally refers to the '*general sense*' of the last sentence, but has no special antecedent in place of which it stands. Parse 'which' in the following sentences :—

I may be detained longer than I expect, in which case do not wait for me. I hope you will stay till Tuesday, on which day I expect my brother. He made a humble confession, by which means he averted his father's displeasure.

Exercise 67. Supply the antecedents which are understood in the following examples, and parse the relatives and their antecedents :—

Who steals my purse, steals trash. Who was the thane, lives yet. Whom we raise we will make fast. I may neither choose whom I would, nor refuse whom I dislike. I dread what* is coming. I hear what you are saying. That is not what I sent you for. I cannot consent to† what you ask. You have not done what you promised. Have you found what you were looking for? What astonished me most was his imprudence. Read what follows. Describe what happened. Whoever said that told a falsehood. He likes whatever is manly. He does whatever he likes. I will pay the money to whomsoever you send. He is pleased by whatever pleases me.

XXXIV. Relative (or Conjunctive) Adverbs.

Preliminary Lesson.—Use of Conjunctive Adverbs (§ 204).

Conjunctive adverbs modify a verb, adjective, or adverb in the clause which they introduce, and join that clause to the predicate of the principal clause.

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* Parse '*what*' as a neuter Relative Pronoun relating to a suppressed antecedent, whenever the sense of the sentence remains the same if '*that which*' is substituted for '*what*.'

† Mind that this preposition does not govern 'what' (which is the object of to 'ask'), but its suppressed antecedent 'that.'

If a conjunctive adverb is equivalent to a relative pronoun preceded by a preposition it joins its clause to the antecedent noun.

Exercise 68. Parse the conjunctive adverbs in the following sentences :—

I was not at home when you called. I shall see you when I return. He still lay where he had fallen. I will follow you whithersoever you go. This is the house where I live. Tell me the reason why you left the room. Go back to the place whence you came. Show me the shop where you bought that. Wherever he lives, he will be happy. I go to see him whenever I can.

Distinguish the connective from the interrogative adverbs in the following sentences, and point out the verb which each adverb qualifies :—

When did you arrive? We came when you did. Where is your brother? I will tell you the news when I see you. How do you do? Whence did you get that report? He worked while we played. He asked me how I had travelled. Whither are you going? Whence came these? We visited the place where the great battle was fought. I will follow you whithersoever you go. How we got out again I scarcely know. That is the reason why I did not write sooner. Why do you tell such stories? Wherever he lives he will be happy. We came directly when we heard you call. When did you find it? Why did you not come sooner? How can one believe him? Wherefore did they leave the town? I will tell you why they left. Tell me how you arranged the matter. Where did you lose your purse?

XXXV. Conjunctions.

Preliminary Lesson.—Study the definition and classification of Conjunctions (§§ 221—226).

To parse a conjunction state what Part of Speech it is, and of what class, and state what words or sentences it couples together. The pairs 'both—and,' 'either—or,' and 'neither—nor,' may be taken together and parsed as correlative and co-ordinative conjunctions, joining such and such words or sentences. Subordinative conjunctions usually join the clause which they introduce to the predicate of the principal clause. The conjunction 'than' joins its clause to the preceding comparative adjective or adverb.

Exercise 71. Parse the conjunctions in the following sentences:—

A. He is poor, but he is contented. He neither came nor sent an excuse. He went out quickly and slammed the door. He shot a hare and two rabbits. Both John and Henry came to see me. I will both lay me down in peace and [I will] sleep. Either I am mistaken, or you are. I can neither eat nor [can I] sleep.

B. I have heard that he said so. He told me that he had no money. You will be punished if you do that. If I had seen him, I would have spoken to

him. He would not help me, though he knew that I was in need. Though hand join hand in hand, the wicked shall not be unpunished. You will lose the prize unless you work harder. Take heed lest you fall. He spoke loud that I might hear him. I cannot give you any money, for I have none. My brother is taller than you are. He is richer than his brother [is]. He comes oftener than [he] ever [came]. As that is the case, I will come.

Exercise 72. Parse the words in italics in the following sentences, bearing in mind that words like *before*, *after*, *since*, &c., when followed by a noun or pronoun in the objective case, are *prepositions*, but are *conjunctions* when followed by a clause containing a finite verb with its subject:—

John arrived *after* his brother. He walked *before* me. Do not go *before* I come. We left *after* the concert was over. He was sorry *after* he had said it. *Since* you say so, I must believe it. He has not smiled *since* his son died. We have not eaten *since* yesterday. They will go away *before* night. They stayed *until* the next day. I will wait *until* you return. They stayed in Paris *until* their money was spent. All *except* John were present. *Except* ye repent, ye shall all likewise perish. There is nobody *but* me at home. You may go, *but* I will stay.

Exercise 73. Parse the word '*that*' wherever it occurs in the following sentences.

Show me that picture. He did not say that. That book is mine. He is the very man that I want. Play me the tune that I like so much. He says that we shall never succeed. He does that that he may vex me. I am afraid that he says that, that he may deceive me. They that will be rich fall into temptation. There is not a man here that I can trust. I lent you that book that you might read it. I hear that he has lost that book that I lent him. You ought to know that that '*that*' that you see at the beginning of the clause is a conjunction, because I told you that before.

Exercise 74. Make five or six sentences to illustrate each use of the word 'that.'

XXXVI. The Subjunctive Mood.

Preliminary Lesson.—Nature and use of the Subjunctive Mood (§ 148).

Exercise 75. Parse the verbs in italics in the following sentences, and explain in each case why the subjunctive is used:—

Take care that dinner *be* ready for me by two o'clock. Beware lest something worse *happen* to you. Live temperately that you *may live* long. If you *were* generous, you *would help* me. If you *had sent* for me, I *would have come*. If he *were* to swear to it, I *would* not *believe* it. If I *had* any money, I *would give* it to you. Oh! that it *were* with me as in days that are past. If this *were* true he *would* not *deny* it. I *would have done* it if I *had been* able. He *could* not be kinder if he *were* my brother. Except the Lord

build the house, they labour in vain that build it. Peace *be* to his ashes. A south-west *blow* on ye, and *blister* you all o'er. I *would* I *were* a weaver. I *would* sing psalms or anything.

Exercise 77. Parse the verbs in italics in the following sentences, carefully distinguishing the moods and noting whether the verb relates to what is *actual fact*, or expresses one of the subjunctive ideas. The use of a *past form* in relation to *present time*, or of a *past perfect*, when there is no reference to any other event, merely to denote *past time*, is one of the marks of the Subjunctive Mood :—

You *may** go. You *may* keep the book. He says that that he *may vex* me. The boys *would* not be quiet when I *begged* them to be so. He *would* not *tell* me if I *asked* him. The old man *might* be seen daily sitting in the porch. He came that he *might beg* money of me. He *may*† have been in the house, but I did not see him. He *would be* angry if he *knew* of it. He *would have been* angry if he *had known* of it. I *had* just *finished* when you *came* in. "*Had* I but *died* an hour before this chance, I *had lived* a blessed time." He *would* not open the door when I *knocked*. He *would open* the door if you *knocked*. He *would have opened* the door if you *had knocked*. You *should*‡ *not tell* lies. If he *has betrayed* his trust, I will never forgive him. If he *did* that he *deserves* to be punished. If he *had done* it, he *would have confessed* it. If he *did* it, he *would* seriously *displease* me. If that *was* his reply, it *was* a very foolish one. If he *were* to make such a reply it *would be* very foolish. If he *had heard* the news, he *kept* it all to himself. If he *had heard* the news, he *would* not *have kept* it to himself. He *could* not do that if he *tried*. He *could* not do it when he *tried*. He *might have come* if he had wished (*i.e.* it *would have been* in his power, &c). It *may be* very strange (*i.e.* it *is possible* that it is very strange), but it is quite true. It *may* have been my fault (*i.e.* it *is possible* that it was my fault).

Exercise 78. Make ten sentences in which the indicative is used after '*if*,' and ten in which the subjunctive is used.

XXXVII. Apposition.

Preliminary Lesson.—When a noun is attached without a conjunction to another noun or pronoun, to give a more complete description of the person or thing meant, it is said to be in apposition to it, and is in the same number and case§ (§ 286, 2).

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* 'May,' 'would,' &c., in the indicative mood must be parsed as notional, not as auxiliary verbs. See Section XXVIII.

† That is, 'it *is* possible that he *was* in the house.'

‡ This use of 'should' is peculiar. It is past in form, referring to present time, and yet it is indicative. It follows the analogy of 'ought' and the other preterite-present verbs.

§ That is, provided the case is the nominative or objective. One noun in the possessive is never put in apposition to another, but the two nouns are treated as a *single compound name*, and the possessive inflexion is only put after the second of the two nouns, that is, at the end of the compound name. In such a phrase as "My brother William's dog," 'my brother William's' must be parsed as a compound proper noun, in the possessive case, depending on 'dog.'

Exercise 79. Parse the words in italics in the following sentences :—

He has gone to see his aunt *Jane*. My brother *Robert* is expected. Pandulf, the Pope's *legate*, came to England. You, the *author* of that report, are responsible. Fetch your *uncle John's* spectacles. He has alienated even you, his earliest *friend*.

XXXVIII. Attributive Adjuncts.

Preliminary Lesson.—Nature and classification of Attributive Adjuncts. Phrases that do the work of Adjectives (§ 286).

Exercise 81. Point out the attributive adjuncts of nouns and pronouns in the following examples, and in each case state of what they consist, and to what they are attached. When two or more adjuncts are attached to the same noun, distinguish them carefully :—

John's coat is seedy. My cousin Henry died last week. A rattling storm came on. I see a man walking* in the garden. My brother Tom's pony is lame. A man clothed* in a long white robe came up to me. We soon reached the top of the mountain. The prisoner's guilt is manifest. The friends of the prisoner are very rich. Fearing to be caught in the rain, we returned. This is no time for trifling. I saw a house to let further on. Whose hat did you take? I borrowed William's big two-bladed knife. A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush. A friend in need is a friend indeed. He obtained permission to go. Leave of absence was refused him. I hear some one knocking at the door. The love of money is the root of all evil. I saw a big boy striking a little one. Feeling unwell, I went to lie down.

XXXIX. Adverbial Adjuncts.

Preliminary Lesson.—Nature and classification of Adverbial Adjuncts. Words and phrases which do the work of Adverbs, by modifying verbs, adjectives or other adverbs (§ 291).

Exercise 82. State to what verb, adjective or adverb the adverbial adjuncts in italics in the following sentences are respectively attached :—

A. We started *early*. He spoke *eloquently*. Do not talk *fast*. Come *quickly*. You are *extremely* kind. He is in an *unusually* good temper. *Where* will you find a truer friend? *How* many persons were *there? Why* did you go *away?*

B. Tom struck me *with his fist*. We were talking *about your brother*. I am

* The attributive adjunct consists of the adjective or participle *together with all the words and phrases that are attached to it*. Thus in the above sentences the attributive adjuncts are 'walking in the garden,' 'clothed in a long white robe,' &c. A complex attributive adjunct of this kind may contain a noun which has adjuncts of its own attached to it. Thus 'a,' 'long,' and 'white' are adjuncts of the noun 'robe.'

fond *of reading*. He came *to see me*.* I shall be glad *to hear the news*. You are *in fault*. You are *to blame*. I am *to take you home*. You are *to return to-morrow*. He is worthy *of admiration*. I have a great deal *to say to you*. I was given *to understand* that you had left town. *To save time* let us walk *across the park*. He came forth bound *hand* † and *foot*. He is *much* † (i.e. *by much*) richer than I am. He will be *none* (= *by nothing*) the wiser. I am *none* the worse.

C. We went to the theatre *last night*. It rained *all day*. I shall see your brother *next week*. This flower blooms *all the year round*. It rained *every day last week*. They walked *barefoot*. He advanced *cap in hand*. The wall is *fifty feet* high.

D. I gave the *boy* a book on his birthday. I will pay *you* your account soon. He is like *his father*. Pass *me* the salt. Do *me* the favour of hearing what I have to say. I will paint *you* a picture.‡

E. *The horses being exhausted* we could not proceed. The rest must perish, *their great leader slain*. *Six frozen winters spent*, return with welcome home from banishment. *The battle over*, the troops withdrew.

F. I have fought *a good fight*. He slept *an untroubled sleep*. We cannot live *our lives* over again.

Exercise 83. Point out the adverbial adjuncts in the following sentences; state of what they consist, and to what verb, adjective or adverb they are attached :—

They arrived yesterday. They will be here to-night. He prayed for a speedy deliverance. I am much displeased with your conduct. He is not like his sister. He accompanied us most of the way. You are to come home directly. He approached me dagger in hand. He built a wall ten feet thick. There is a church a mile distant from the town. You are spending your time to no purpose. I am not disposed to sell the horse. We were all talking of the accident. We live in constant fear. Wait a bit. We had nothing to do. What is the matter with you? He is too ready to take offence. We are glad to see you. Why did you say that? My pony being lame, I cannot ride to-day.

Exercise 85. In the following examples show which of the phrases made up of a preposition and a noun do the work of an adjective, i.e. are *attributive* adjuncts, and which do the work of an adverb, that is, are *adverbial* adjuncts; and show to what word each is attached.

He shot a great quantity of game on the moor. What is the use of all this fuss about the matter? I am delighted to see you in good health. We were vexed by his rudeness to you. The advantages of travelling in foreign countries are very great. He is a man of great industry. He accomplished the task by unflagging industry. A man addicted to self-indulgence will not rise to greatness. He is fond of angling. That is a good stream for angling. I am

* Select from Exercise 54 all the examples of the Gerundial Infinitive used adverbially.

† In these examples a noun (or substantive pronoun) in the objective, without a preposition before it, constitutes an Adverbial Adjunct.
Collect all the sentences in Exercise 48 which contain adverbial adjuncts.

‡ Add to these examples all those in Exercise 19 which contain an Indirect Object.

fond of the pastime of angling. I must express my displeasure at your behaviour. You have displeased me by your behaviour. He is not prone to behaviour of this kind. We rely on your promise. Reliance on his promises is useless. Do your duty to him. What is my duty to my neighbour? He adhered to his determination to make the attempt. He is too feeble to make the attempt. He gave him his best wine to drink. The place abounds in good water to drink. Do you see that man on horseback? He has given up riding on horseback. The master praised the boy at the top of the class. He shouted to the boys at the top of his voice.

Exercise 86. Make a dozen sentences in which a preposition followed by a noun or pronoun forms an attributive adjunct, and a dozen in which it forms an adverbial adjunct.

XL. Parsing of Adverbial Adjuncts.

Exercise 87. Nouns occurring in adverbial phrases, and not governed by prepositions, must be parsed as being in the Adverbial Objective Case (i.e., the Objective Case used adverbially), except those in the *absolute* construction, which must (now) be parsed as being in the nominative absolute. What is called the Cognate Object is really one kind of adverbial objective.

Parse the words in italics in the following sentences, carefully distinguishing the adverbial objective from the other uses of that case :—

I will pay you next *week*. We shall spend next *week* in London. Papa goes to London every *day*. He spends every other *day* in London. He spends the *half* of every *day* in bed. We sat up half the *night*. We have lost half the *day*. I see him most *days*. Most *days* are joyless to me. Every *evening* we have a rubber. Every *evening* next *week* is engaged. We are engaged every *evening* next *week*. We went over dry *foot*. Come this *way*. Lead the *way*. I have told him that twenty *times*. I cannot count the *times* that I have told him that. The *horses* having been harnessed, we started. "The rest must perish, their great *leader* slain."

Exercise 88. Parse the words in italics in the following sentences :—

He will have the expense *besides* all the trouble. He will have the expense and the trouble *besides*. *Both* John and I were present. *Both* brothers were present. I will *both* lay me down in peace and sleep. *All* those present heard it. He sat up *all* night. *All* is lost. He is *all* powerful at court. We have *other* things to attend to. *Others* may believe it, but I cannot. You may break him, *but* you will never bend him. He spoke to all *but* me. There was *but* a minute to spare. I would do it *but* that I am forbidden. There is no one *but* pities him. Parse 'but' in the last sentence. *Either* road is difficult. I never drink *either* beer or wine. They gave us trouble *enough*.* We have not *enough* to eat. They have bread *enough* and *to spare*.

* 'Enough' may be a substantive, an adjective, or an adverb.

You are sent *for*. They sent *for* you. You must go, *for* you are sent for. We have wasted *half* the day. I am *half* inclined to believe it. I have not told you one *half* of what was said. He *need* not be afraid. He *needs* strict oversight. His *needs* will be well supplied. He must *needs* pass through Samaria. He left *next* day. What shall we do *next*? He sat *next* me at dinner. Who comes *next*? He has lost his *only* son. We have *only* four shillings left. Do what you please, *only* be quick about it. I have *somewhat* to say unto thee. I feel *somewhat* indisposed.

XLI. ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

I. Simple Sentences.

Preliminary Lesson.—Nature of a simple sentence. Difference between the *logical* Subject and Predicate, and the *grammatical* Subject and Predicate. (§§ 276, &c.; 302, &c.; 371, &c.)

Exercise* 90. Divide the following sentences into the logical subject, and the logical predicate :—

The child has hurt himself. This naughty child has torn his clothes. The boys came home last night. John's parents have sent him to school. Dismayed at the prospect they beat a retreat. The owner of that estate intends to sell it. My little brother has fallen down. The children, tired with play, came indoors. The friends of that little boy have sent him to sea. A rich old uncle has left him a large estate in Yorkshire. The horse, terrified by the lightning, ran away at full speed.

Questions may be divided in a similar manner. The construction will sometimes be clearer in the primary division, if the predicate be put first. † Thus, "When will your brother return to town?" may be divided. *Pred.* 'When will return to town?' *Subj.* 'Your brother.

Divide the following sentences in a similar way :—

Does your uncle the doctor know of this? Went not my spirit with thee? Whence did the author of that book get his materials? Who in the world told you that? Why did you send the poor man away? How many shillings have you in your purse?

Exercise 91. The component parts of a compound tense are often separated by the intrusion of adverbial adjuncts. Take the following sentences and put with the subject in each the *whole of the verb* that belongs to it, without the other words. Thus from "We have already heard the news," take "We have heard."

We shall soon reach our destination. The field is already being reaped. The work will very probably be finished before night. We shall in due time

* The examples in the following exercises may be taken for practice in parsing as well as in analysis.

† If the subject be the interrogative 'who,' it had better come first.

know all about it. I had at last with infinite trouble surmounted the difficulty, I shall most likely hear from you to-morrow. I have been all the morning trying to make out this problem. You will by these very simple means stop his proceedings.

Exercise 92. Take the following sentences * and separate the logical subject in each into the grammatical subject and its adjuncts (§§ 286, 306, 372).

(My) (poor) (little) brother has hurt himself. (My brother John's) pony has broken his leg. (A) man (carrying a great sack of flour) came into the barn. (The) (impudent) fellow (not being satisfied with my alms) began to abuse me. (My poor little brother's) (pet) bird was shot. (This) law, (the disgrace of our statute book) was repealed. (The) house (on the other side of the street) is on fire. (The) (Chubb's) (patent) lock (to my desk) has been picked. (Good) water (for drinking) was scarce. (Despairing of success) he abandoned the undertaking. (Disgusted by so many acts of baseness) (the man's) friends (all) deserted him.

The old church has fallen into ruins. The brave soldiers of the garrison died at their posts. A rich old uncle left him his property. A horseman, wrapped in a huge cloak, entered the yard. The handle of the pump in the yard is broken. John's account of the affair alarmed me. Which boy knows his lessons? What poet's works please you most? What goods are most in demand? What naughty little boy broke the window?

Exercise 93. Make (or find) a dozen sentences in which the grammatical subject is enlarged, and state in each case of what the enlargement consists.

Exercise 94. Separate the following sentences into two groups, one consisting of those in which there is a grammatical object of the predicate verb, the other consisting of those in which there is not a grammatical object. Then take the sentences in the first group and set down separately the object of the verb in each, and the several attributive adjuncts of the object. Thus: "John sent to us an amusing account of the proceedings." *Object*:—'Account.' *Attributive adjuncts of Object*:—1. 'An'; 2. 'amusing'; 3. 'of the proceedings.'

My cousin arrived last night. We were greatly amused by his story. He told us a droll story about his brother. Have you read this author's last work? Whom did you see at the concert? The girl is admired by everybody. Everybody admires John's little sister. Thus ended a war † of ten years' duration. This ended that most unpleasant business. Down came the rain. I saw a soldier on horseback.‡ I met some gipsies in my ramble. The master

* In the first few sentences the words or groups of words forming separate adjuncts are enclosed in brackets.

† Mind that the subject very often *follows* the verb.

‡ Observe that this phrase does not show where the act of seeing took place. Contrast this sentence with the next.

praised the boy at the top of the class. The man struck the poor little boy on the head. The boys were rewarded for their diligence. My horse fell down in the road. Deep drank Lord Marmion of the wave. On the top of the hill stands a stone cross. We were strenuously advised to turn back.

Exercise 95. Take the sentences in the last three exercises, and write down the several adverbial adjuncts of the predicate in each.

Exercise 96. Give the complete analysis of the following sentences :—

John's account of the affair alarmed me. Every finite verb in a sentence has a subject. My brother Henry told me* that. I saw the occurrence through a gap in the wall. That lazy boy did not go out of doors all the morning. Have you heard the news? I desire nothing more ardently. Crying will not help you out of the difficulty. To act thus will displease his father. To do this properly requires time. Who spoke last? Whom did you hear at church this morning? Hoping to find an easier road, we left our companions at the bridge. How† did you find your way? He used a stick to support his steps. What foolish notion possesses you? A little girl's voice was heard in the garden. A large dog's bark was heard in the distance. An empty bird's nest was found. The tall lady's dress was torn. Some ladies' silk dresses were sold by auction. My cousin's return interrupted our game. He found his brother lying fast asleep. We have bought a pretty little calf a month old. What more do you desire? Whom did you find walking in the garden? Whose umbrella did you take? Whose exercise has the fewest faults? The poor man's wife died last night. They advanced step by step. Give me a cup of tea. I return you my best thanks.

Exercise 97. Take the following pairs of subjects and verbs and build up sentences by putting in objects, where they are wanted, and enlarging the subjects, predicates, and objects, with as many adjuncts, attributive and adverbial, as you can. Thus, from 'Men rob,' you may make 'Men of weak character, led astray by temptation, sometimes rob their unsuspecting friends shamefully.'

Birds build, Ship carries. Boy lost. Loaf was bought. Brother left. Sister came. Children went. Men found. We arrived. Man struck. Horse threw.

Exercise 98. Make a dozen other sentences in a similar way with subjects and verbs of your own choosing.

Exercise 99. Parse all the words in Exercises 94 and 96.

XLII. Verbs of Incomplete Predication.

Preliminary Lesson.—Nature and construction of Verbs of Incomplete Predication. Mode of analysing sentences in which they occur (§§ 309–312; 375).

* Look at § 291, 4. † Remember that 'how' is an adverb.

Exercise 100. Analyse the following sentences containing Subjective Complements of verbs of Incomplete Predication :—

He is insane. They are honest. He is an honest man. He became my friend. He became very rich in a short time. He grew rich suddenly. He was called an enthusiast by his friends. He is not thought a fool. The prisoner was pronounced guilty of homicide. He is my cousin's friend. The wine tastes sweet. She looks very pretty. He was elected Emperor. He stood silent. They entered laughing. The boys rushed shouting into the playground.

Exercise 101. Parse the preceding sentences. Account for the case of the complement either by saying that the verbs 'be,' 'become,' &c., take the same case after them as before them, or (better) by saying that the complement is in the predicative relation to the subject.

Exercise 102. The verb *to be* is a verb of incomplete predication when it is employed in making a compound tense of a verb in either the active or the passive voice, as 'He is going;' 'I was saying;' 'He is gone;' 'He was struck.' But when used to form a tense of another verb, it is usually called an *Auxiliary Verb*. In such cases the compound form denotes the performance, the continuance, or the completion of an action. When *the state that is the result of the action* is denoted, the participle that follows is merely an adjective of quality. When it is not accompanied by a complement of some sort, *to be* is a verb of *complete predication*, or (as it is sometimes called) the 'verb of *existence*.' (*N.B.*—An adverb or adverbial phrase is not a complement.)

Point out carefully the various uses of the verb in the following examples :—

He is in the parlour. He is going away. Such things have been. The time has been, that when the brains were out, the man would die. We are ready. I am in doubt about that. The boy was blamed for that. The poor man was starved to death. The children are half starved. He was wounded by an arrow. The poor soldier is badly wounded. I am trying to do it. This delay is trying to our patience. I am delighted to see you. We were delighted by the concert. He is named John. He was called a fool for his pains. Where are you? Where have you been all the morning?

Exercise 103. Analyse the following sentences containing Objective Complements of verbs of incomplete predications :—

He painted the wall white. He made us all merry. They made Henry king. He called the man a liar. You have made your hands dirty. This measure rendered the plot abortive. He set the audience laughing. The people elected Washington president. The king appointed him commander-in-chief. The thunder has turned the milk sour. The cat has licked the plate clean. Shame has struck him dumb. The retreating tide left the ship high and dry. The architect has constructed the ceilings too low. They dug the trench wider and deeper. They raised the walls higher. The careless boys left the gate wide open.

Exercise 104. Analyse the following sentences, in which the subjective complement is a verb in the infinitive mood.

He is believed to have perished. They are supposed to have lost their way. He is thought to have poisoned the man. He is believed to be mad. That step was considered to be very imprudent. He was ordered to sit down.

Exercise 105. Parse the preceding sentences.

Exercise 106. Analyse the following sentences containing Infinitive Complements.*

They can write well. We can sing. They may depart. We must make haste. You shall be rewarded. I will be answered. I must go home. I cannot hear you. They may take the money. I will return shortly. They shall have a good scolding. That cannot be allowed. Nothing could be more unfortunate.

Exercise 107. Analyse the following sentences, carefully distinguishing those cases in which a verb is followed by a *complement* from those in which it is followed by an *adverbial adjunct*. See whether the word in question denotes the *condition* of that which is spoken about, or the *manner* in which an action is done.

That looks pretty. The bell sounded cracked. He spoke loud. The cry sounded clear and shrill. His voice sounded feebly. His voice sounded feeble. He has travelled far and wide. They have not made the street wide enough. The people wept sore. It grieved me sore. The stones have made my feet sore. He rubbed his face hard. The water is frozen hard. He rubbed his face sore. They came late. This delay will make us late. The bird sang clear. The ship passed clear of the rock. The water runs clear. Her voice sounds clear.

XLIII. Complex Objective Phrases.†

Preliminary Lesson.— Use of the Objective and Infinitive (§ 313).

Exercise 108. Analyse the following sentences containing objective infinitive phrases :—

He heard‡ the wind roar through the trees. I heard the man say so. We saw the thief try to pick a gentleman's pocket. I wish‡ you to come to-morrow. I believe‡ the man to be innocent. I felt‡ the air fan my cheek. I have heard [people] say that he is very rich. Have you ever known‡ the man confess being in fault? I expected‡ the travellers to be here by this time.

---

* These complements are in reality in the Objective Relation to the verbs of incomplete predication.

† These infinitive phrases are often scarcely distinguishable from infinitive moods used as objective complements; but it will be seen on consideration that there is the same kind of distinction between 'He made the child cry' and 'He saw the child fall,' that there is between 'He made the man angry' and 'He found the man dead.' In constructions of this sort the verb in the infinitive mood may be parsed as being the verb in an objective infinitive phrase, having the preceding noun or pronoun in the objective case as its subject.

‡ Notice that the meaning of this verb is *quite complete in itself*. The *whole* of the following phrase is the object of it.

XLIV. Complex Sentences.

Substantive Clauses.

Preliminary Lesson.—Nature, form, and structure of substantive clauses (§§ 318–320).

Exercise 109. Analyse the following sentences in which a substantive clause (or noun-sentence, as it is often termed) is the subject, having first drawn a thick line under the whole clause. When 'it' is employed as a temporary, or provisional subject, set it down as such, and place after it the substantive clause as the real subject. Analyse the substantive clauses separately, remembering that the conjunction 'that' does not enter into the structure of the clause which it introduces, but that interrogative words do, being either pronouns or adverbs.

Before analysing the sentences in this and the succeeding Exercises, draw a line under *the entire set of words* which form the substantive clause, remembering that you have not got a complete substantive clause, or noun-sentence, unless it has a subject and a finite verb, with all the adjuncts that may be attached to either of these.

That he did the deed is quite certain. That he said so is undeniable. Who can have told you that, puzzles me. How long I shall stay here is uncertain. What we are to do next is the question. What his capacity is signifies nothing. How I found the matter out is no concern of yours. How completely you are mistaken can easily be shown. What signifies what weather we have?

It is not true that he said so. It is very probable that he will not arrive to-day. It is uncertain what the result will be. It does not matter what he thinks. It is uncertain how long I shall stay.

Exercise 110. Analyse the following sentences in which a substantive clause is the object of a verb, or of a phrase equivalent to a transitive verb :—

I knew that he would come. I heard that he had arrived. I think I have the honour of addressing Mr. Smith? Tell me who told you. Tell me how old you are. Tell him I cannot see him to-day. I want to know when this happened. I thought it* strange that he should leave without calling on me. He told me he knew all about the matter. Tell me what you think of all this. He is confident that I shall succeed. We are resolved that that shall not occur again.

Exercise 111. Analyse the following sentences in which a sub-

* 'It' often does duty as a temporary or provisional object. Deal with it as in the case of the subject; that is, first analyse the sentence without the substantive clause, and then substitute that clause for the 'it.'

stantive clause is in apposition to a noun, or comes after a preposition, or is used absolutely with a participle, like a nominative absolute :—

The fact that you say so is enough for me. The circumstance that he was present must not be disregarded. The idea that I can comply with his request is absurd. He did this to the end that he might convince me. He could not get rid of the idea that I was his enemy. I came on the chance that I might find you at home. Who can want the thought how monstrous it was for Malcolm and for Donalbain to kill their gracious father? He sent me word that he would come anon. There was a rumour that the army had been defeated. I would not believe the story but that you avouch it. Provided this report be confirmed, we shall know what to do.

XLV.—Adjective Clauses.

Preliminary Lesson.—Nature, form, and construction of Adjective Clauses (§§ 321–325).

Exercise 115. Draw a thin line under the adjective clauses in each of the following sentences, then analyse the entire sentence, and lastly analyse the adjective clause separately :*—

The serpent that did sting thy father's life, now wears his crown. The book which I lent him was torn to pieces. Show me the book which you have in your hand. They that will be rich fall into temptation. I have found the knife which I had lost. The reason why you cannot succeed is evident. The fortress whither the troops had betaken themselves was soon captured. He had many heavy burdens to bear, the pressure of which nearly crushed him. I saw the captain in whose ship you will sail. Do you know the gentleman to whom this park belongs? What sad talk was that wherewith my brother held you in the cloister? I know a bank whereon the wild thyme blows. His behaviour is not such [behaviour] as† I like. This cloth is not such [cloth] as† I asked for.

Exercise 116. Deal in a similar way with the sentences in Exercise 63.

Exercise 117. Supply the relatives which are omitted in the sentences in Exercise 65, and then analyse the sentences.

Make (or find) a dozen sentences containing adjective clauses in which the relative is expressed, and a dozen in which it is omitted, and then analyse them.

Exercise 118. Analyse the following sentences in which the Adjective Clauses have a Relative Adverb in place of a Relative Pronoun governed by a Preposition.

I will show you the shop where I bought these apples. The reason why you cannot succeed is evident. Return to the place whence you came. I can

* Remember that the Adjective Clause must contain a subject and a finite verb of its own.
† 'As' must be treated as equivalent to a relative pronoun.

remember the time when there were no houses here. Do you know the source whence he obtained this information? The fortress whither the defeated troops had fled was soon captured.

Exercise 121. The word 'what' sometimes introduces an adjective clause, and sometimes an indirect question, which is a substantive clause. *What* is interrogative when it cannot be replaced by 'that which.'

Analyse the following sentences, carefully distinguishing the substantive clauses from the adjective clauses, and then parse the sentences :—

Repeat what you have just said. You have only told me what I know already. I know what you said about me. Go, and find out what is the matter. Do what you can in this business. Pray tell me what ails you. You must not dictate to me what I am to do. This is what he did. He soon repented of what he had done. He knows well enough what he ought to do.

Exercise 122. Make (or find) a dozen sentences illustrating each use of 'what,' and analyse them.

Exercise 123. The pronouns 'who' and 'which,' and the pronominal adverbs 'when,' 'where,' &c., have the same twofold use; the adverbs, when used as the equivalents of relative pronouns governed by prepositions, having a *relative* force.

Analyse the following sentences :—

Find out who did that. Whom we raise we will make fast. I could not make out whom he was alluding to. That is where* I live. Tell me where you live. Tell me why you are so angry. That is why* I am angry. I do not know when they will arrive.

XLVI. Adverbial Sentences.

Preliminary Lesson.—Nature, form, and structure of Adverbial Clauses (§§ 326—344).

1. Adverbial Clauses relating to Time.

Exercise 126. Analyse (and parse) the following sentences, after first drawing a dotted line under the Adverbial Clauses, and then analyse these clauses separately †

* In the analysis supply an antecedent noun.

† Remember that the conjunctive or pronominal adverbs *when, where, whither*, &c., have an *adverbial* construction in their own clauses, but that the Conjunctions *after, before, till, while*, &c., have no such force. 'While' has nothing to do with the relative pronoun. It is an old noun meaning 'time,' to which a substantive clause beginning with '*that*' was in apposition. The omission of '*that*' gave to 'while' a conjunctive force.

I will tell you the secret* when I see you. When you durst do it, then you were a man. I did not know that till you told me. While he is here we shall have no peace.

A plague [be] upon it, when thieves cannot be true to one another. What signifies asking, when there's not a soul to give you an answer? I'll charm the air to give a sound while you perform your antic round. He arrived after we had left. I shall be gone before you are up. He left the room as I entered. You may come whenever you please.

2. Adverbial Clauses relating to Place.

Exercise 127. Analyse and parse the following sentences :—

He still lay where he fell. Where thou dwellest, I will dwell. Wherever you go, I will follow you. There,† where a few torn shrubs the place disclose, the village preacher's modest mansion rose. Whithersoever I went, he followed me. Seat yourselves wherever there is room.

3. Adverbial Clauses relating to Manner and Degree.

Exercise 128. Analyse and parse the following sentences :—

As the tree falls, so‡ it will lie. Do as I tell you [to do]. He is as§ avaricious as his brother is generous. The‖ longer I know him, the less I like him. The‖ more he has, the more he wants. She is as good as she is beautiful. We do not always write as we pronounce. He always does as he promises [to do].

4. Adverbial Clauses relating to Cause, Purpose, and Consequence.

Exercise 129. Analyse and parse the following sentences :—

He came because I sent for him. I cannot tell you his age, for I do not know it. Because Thou hast been my help, therefore in the shadow of Thy wings will I rejoice. Since you say so, I must believe it. As he has begged my pardon, I will forgive him.

He toils hard that he may get rich. I called on him that I might tell him about that matter. He retired to his own room that he might study quietly. Take care that all be ready. Take heed lest ye fall into temptation.

I am so¶ tired that I am ready to drop. He is so weak that he cannot stand. He is such a liar that nobody believes him. It is so dark that we cannot see.

---

* In parsing a sentence of this kind, 'when' should be described as a connective adverb, modifying the verb 'see,' and joining the clause 'when I see you' to the predicate 'will tell.'

† 'There' and the clause 'where—disclose' are co-ordinate adverbial adjuncts of 'rose.'

‡ 'So' and the clause 'as the tree falls' are co-ordinate adverbial adjuncts of 'will lie.'

§ The first 'as' is demonstrative, the second relative. Each modifies the adjective in its clause.

‖ Here the main clause is the second one. The first 'the' is relative, the second demonstrative.

¶ The demonstrative 'so' and the adverbial clause are co-ordinate adverbial adjuncts of 'tired.'

5. Adverbial Clauses relating to Condition. Hypothetical and Concessive Clauses.

Exercise 130. Analyse the following sentences :—

If you call you will see him. I would have called on you, if I had known your address. You will not succeed unless you try harder. I will not come unless you invite me. Except ye repent ye shall all likewise perish. Though he is rich he is not contented. Had I known* this I should have acted differently. Were you my brother I could not do it for you. I would have finished the work had it been possible.

MISCELLANEOUS EXAMPLES FOR ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

1. Lightly and brightly breaks away
   The morning from her mantle gray.

2. Right sharp and quick the bells all night
   Rang out from Bristol town.

3. The gallant king, he skirted still
   The margin of that mighty hill.

4. All alone by the side of the pool
   A tall man sat on a three-legged stool,
   Kicking his heels on the dewy sod,
   And putting in order his reel and his rod.

5. The soul's dark cottage, battered and decayed,
   Lets in new light through chinks that time has made

6. His daily teachers had been woods and rills.

7. Love had he found in huts where poor men lie.

8. Waiting till the west wind blows,
   The freighted clouds at anchor lie.

9. Here in cool grot and mossy cell
   We rural fays and fairies dwell.

10. The sable mantle of the silent night
    Shut from the world the ever-joysome light.

11. From yonder ivy-mantled tower
    The moping owl does to the moon complain
    Of such† as, wand'ring near her secret bower,
    Molest her ancient, solitary reign.

* 'If' is omitted. † Supply 'persons,' and take 'as' as a relative pronoun.

12. Beneath those rugged elms, that yew-tree's shade,
Where heaves the turf in many a mould'ring heap,
Each in his narrow cell for ever laid,*
The rude forefathers of the hamlet sleep.

13. There, at the foot of yonder nodding beech,
That wreathes its old fantastic roots so high,
His listless length at noontide would he stretch,
And pore upon the brook that babbles by.

14. In climes beyond the solar road,
Where shaggy forms o'er ice-built mountains roam,
The Muse has broke the twilight gloom
To cheer the shiv'ring native's dull abode.

15. Night, sable goddess, from her ebon throne
In rayless majesty now stretches forth
Her leaden sceptre o'er a prostrate world.

16. He that is down need fear no fall,
He that is low no pride.

17. Our sport shall be to take what they mistake.

18. My hour is almost come,
When I to sulphurous and tormenting flames
Must render up myself.

19. We are not weak if we make a proper use of those means which the God of nature hath placed in our power.

20. Him the Almighty Power
Hurled headlong, flaming, from the ethereal sky
With hideous ruin and combustion down
To bottomless perdition.

21. He that fights and runs away,
May live to fight another day.

22. The evil that men do lives after them.

23. Now, night descending, the proud scene was o'er.

24. When they do choose
They have the wisdom by their wit to lose.

25. I must freely have the half of anything that this same paper brings you.

26. Their perfume lost, take these again.

27. The great man down, you mark his favourite flies;
The poor advanced makes friends of enemies.

* Take 'each—laid' as a nominative absolute.

28. The night is long that never finds the day.

29. How dangerous is it that this man goes loose.

30. When sorrows come, they come not single spies,
But in battalions.

31. That we would do, we should do when we would.

32 Breathes there the man with soul so dead,
Who never to himself hath said,
'This is my own, my native land'?*

33. He that claims either for himself or for another the honours of perfection, will surely injure the reputation he designs to assist.

34. These honours peace to happy Britain brings.

35. Whilst light and colours rise and fly
Lives Newton's deathless memory.

36. If this will not suffice, it must appear that malice bears down truth.

37. It doth appear you are a worthy judge.

38. Your wife would give you little thanks for that, if she were by to hear you make the offer.

39. You take my house when you do take the prop
That doth sustain my house; you take my life
When you do take the means whereby I live.

40. As fruits, ungrateful to the planter's care,
On savage stocks inserted, learn to bear,
The surest virtues thus from passions shoot,
Wild nature's vigour working at the root.

41. While from the purpling east departs
The star that led the dawn,
Blithe Flora from her couch upstarts,
For May is on the lawn.

42. Fame comes unlooked for, if it comes at all.

43. As the bell clinks, so the fool thinks.

44. It is a bad bargain where both are losers.

45. It is a cunning part to play the fool well.

46. Be the day never so long, at last cometh evensong.

---

* A quotation is not a dependent *clause*, it is merely a complex substantive.

47. When you are anvil, hold you still ;
When you are hammer, strike your fill.

48. It is an old rat that won't eat cheese.

49. It is often the least boy carries the biggest fiddle.

50. The dog with insult seemed to treat him,
And looked as if he longed to eat him.

51. I feel again the genial glow
That makes me half forget the woe.

52. Vice I detest, whoever shows it ;
And when I see it I'll expose it.

53. I don't deny
I often like my luck to try ;
And no one here I'm sure will say
That when I lose I do not pay.

54. Such is the book I mean to make,
And I've no doubt the work will take.

55. This band dismissed, behold, another crowd
Preferred the same request, and lowly bowed.

56. None judge so wrong as those who think amiss.

57. Like phantoms to the iron porch they glide,
Where lay the porter in uneasy sprawl,
With a huge empty flagon by his side.

58. With good wearing these coats will last you fresh and sound as long as you live.

59. In the bright Muse though thousand charms conspire,
Her voice is all these tuneful fools admire.

60. And then he said he would full fain
He could recall an ancient strain
He never thought to sing again.

61. There's nothing blackens like the ink of fools.

62. They are as sick that surfeit with too much, as they that starve on nothing.

63. There is sweet music here that softer falls
Than petals from blown roses on the grass.

64. Physicians are, some of them, so pleasing and conformable to the humour of the patient, as (= that) they press not the true cure of the disease.

65. It would be well if all men felt how surely ruin awaits those who abuse their gifts and powers.

66. I have secret reasons which I forbear to mention because you are not able to answer those of which I make no secret.

67. Now methinks you teach me how a beggar should be answered.

68. I'll see if I can get my husband's ring, which I did make him swear to keep for ever.

69. Where they most breed and haunt I have observed the air is delicate.

70. Meet me upon the rising of the mountain-foot that leads towards Mantua, whither they are fled.

71. You rub the sore when you should bring the plaster.

72. Be he ne'er so vile, this day shall gentle his condition.

73. The lady's fortune must not go out of the family; one may find comfort in the money, whatever one does in the wife.

74. An (= if) I have not ballads made on you all, and sung to filthy tunes, let a cup of sack be my poison.

75. When we can entreat an hour to serve, we would spend it in some words on that business, if you would grant the time.

76. How a bright star shooteth from the sky,
So glides he in the night from Venus' eye.

77. You will soon find such peace which it is not in the power of the world to give.

78. You have put me now to such a part which never I shall discharge to the life.

79. I have been studying how I may compare
This prison, where I live, unto the world.

80. How sour sweet music is,
When time is broke, and no proportion kept.

81. It is the part of men to fear and tremble,
When the most mighty gods by tokens send
Such dreadful heralds to astonish us?

82. Who then shall blame
His pestered senses to recoil and start,
When all that is within him does condemn
Itself for being there?

83. If thou speak'st false,
Upon the next tree shalt thou hang alive,
Till famine cling thee.

84. There's nothing ill can dwell in such a temple.

85. I fear he will prove the weeping philosopher when he grows old.

86. When he is best he is a little worse than a man; and when he is worst he is little better than a beast.

87. If I can catch him once upon the hip,
I will feed fat the ancient grudge I bear him.

88. And so may I, blind fortune leading me,
Miss that which one unworthier may attain.

89. Who rises from a feast
With that keen appetite that he sits down?

90. Thou call'dst me dog before thou hadst a cause,
But, since I am a dog, beware my fangs.

91. The boat had touched this silver strand
Just as the hunter left his stand.

92. I confess it was not without some pleasure that I found myself able to trace the particular features by which certain families are distinguished up to their originals.

93. He said, if we were governed by our own consent he could not imagine of whom we were afraid, or against whom we were to fight.

94. What golden gains my book would boast,
If I could meet a chatty ghost,
Who would some news communicate
Of its unknown and present state.

95. I receive all who come this way,
And care not, sir, how long they stay,
So they but eat, and drink, and pay.

96. It does not appear, from all you have said, how any one perfection is required towards the procurement of any one station among you.

97. I am as heartily sorry as any of my readers can possibly be, that such an occasion was given.

98. To confirm what I have now said, I shall here insert a passage which will hardly obtain belief.

99. I hope the reader need not be told that I do not in the least intend my own country in what I say upon this occasion.

100. If you did know to whom I gave the ring,
If you did know for whom I gave the ring,
And would conceive for what I gave the ring,
And how unwillingly I left the ring,
When nought would be accepted but the ring,
You would abate the strength of your displeasure.

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